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ABSTRACT

The ninth part of a 10-part series, this report was compiled by the Educational Development Center at Wilkes College. The series deals with various aspects of the treatment of delinquents and is intended as a summary of research findings in each of the areas treated. Each report was prepared by a scholar-practitioner and is presented in a way that will be of value to professionals who deal both directly and indirectly with the treatment of delinquent youth. The report is, in fact, one manuscript of 627 pages; however, to make it more easily used, it is published in 10 separate parts. A detailed table of contents for the entire series is presented at the end of each part. This part deals with management and administration of institutions for delinquents. It includes a discussion of past and present concepts of administration, and has sections on planned change, decision making, types of formal organization, systems analysis, and program design and evaluation. (Author)

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THE TREATMENT OF DELINQUENCY SERIES

AN EDC REPORT

CHAPTER 9

Administrative Management of Institutions and Centers for Delinquent Youth

David A. Sabatino

Northern Illinois University

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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Editor's Preface

This report is part of a ten part series compiled by the Educational Development Center at Wilkes College. The series deals with various aspects of the treatment of delinquents and is intended as a summary of research findings in each of the areas treated. Each report was prepared by a scholar-practitioner and is presented in a way that will be of value to those whose calling has led them to educational careers dealing both directly and indirectly with the treatment of delinquent youth. The report is, in fact, one manuscript of 627 pages; however, to make it more easily used, it is published in ten separate parts. A detailed table of contents for the entire series is presented at the end of this part.

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We invite any and all comments and/or inquiries concerning this series.

Joseph A. Skok, D.P.A.

Director
Educational Development Center

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CHAPTER IX

ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT OF INSTITUTIONS AND CENTERS FOR DELINQUENT YOUTH

David A. Sabatino

INTRODUCTION

The word administration, or the act of administering, is frequently preceded by an adjective. School administration or business administration or clinical administration of treatment staff are three different types of administration thought to require an administrator to have a different training and experiental background. Yet, all three of these functions may be expected of one person in a private or public facility for delinquent youth. A more acute difficulty is that each of these functions may be performed by an administrator with or without budgetary control, or with or without ultimate responsibility for personnel management. The program area administrator is frequently subordinate to a general administrator. Institutional superintendents may be political appointees, business managers, or may have previous experience in only one aspect of corrections, e.g., a correctional officer.

Another difficulty in administering an institution for delinquent youth is that the institution as an organization exists as a suborganization or small society within a budgetary and program environment which reflects society in general. Therefore, all program goals must mirror, to some degree, the will of the larger society or be in conflict with those values. The fact that an institution may be administered by a Department of Welfare, Child Welfare, Corrections, Education, Mental Health, or other service bureaus for children will provide a definite set of constraints upon the type of suborganization any given facility is currently, or is to become. As a suborganization of a larger organizational framework, an institution for delinquents has multiple constituencies. The difficulties with serving more than one master are rather obvious. But, the difficulty associated with interorganizational conflict becomes even more apparent when the reader realizes the potentiality of interorganizational conflict among treatment staff members, custody staff members, and educational personnel. If the term conflict seems a bit too strong to the reader, then a few hours should be spent in the shoes of an institutional administrator working within state structures, attempting to facilitate the most appropriate program for delinquent youth. Bureaucracy is always difficult to understand. A much needed typewriter or set of school books can be held up in the "pipeline" for six months, while suddenly a new governor, after election or at the end of a legislative probe or fiscal

year, will authorize the "crash" construction of a bowling alley. To develop programs that will alter and enrich the lives of troublesome or troubled youth is very frustrating work. It is to that frustration that we dedicate this chapter.

The contents of this chapter are designed to represent a balance between two different dimensions. The first dimension is time. The chapter explores attitude and the beliefs society has maintained concerning institutional programs. The reason is that the current state of the art reflects many historic antecedents. It is proposed that institutional administrators must constantly confront two different dimensions in developing and maintaining programs. That is, they must prepare, educate, and stimulate to action both the institutional staff and the community at large on the nature of their programs. The second dimension is the skills necessary to undertake the daily job of administering an institutional program. The contents of this chapter are sections on planned change, the dynamics of administration, decision making, institutional program models, types of organization, modern systems analysis, formats for program, and personnel evaluation, and finally a brief look at the man or woman who administers institutional programs.

The Development of Institutions

Institutions were first established in this country to protect society from the criminal class born to evil.

> "The colonial period saw the eventual demise of corporal punishments (whipping, branding, the stocks) and of the punitive and deterrent rationale in the theory of 'corrections.' At this time, should the youthful offender be above the age of responsibility, as discussed earlier, he would be dealt with as an adult. The incidents of children being hanged occurred more frequently than one might imagine. Thus, as the confinement rather than punishment of adult offenders became the prevalent treatment mode, the youthful offender joined his adult counterpart within the institution."
>
> (Atkinson, 1974, p. 174)

The approach adopted in this country of confining adolescent offenders to reformatories grew out of seventeenth century houses of confinement in Europe and England. These were restricted habitats for the poor, unemployed criminal prisoners and the insane. In 1684 the French government decreed that the houses of confinement should be divided into sectors for males and females if they were below the age of twenty-five. That same decree specified that work was to occupy the greater portion of the day, accompanied by reading pious books. "They will be made to work as long and as hard as their strength and situation will permit . . . will be punished by reduction of fuel, by increase of work, by imprisonment and other punishment customary in said hospitals, as the director shall see fit. (Foucault, 1973, p. 60).

"This first house of refuge was little more than a separate prison, walled, built upon the congregate (connected or single buildings) housing plan. Incarceration, not rehabilitation, was its primary purpose . . . The Philadelphia House of Refuge was opened in 1828 along much the same lines as the other two, and for the same express purpose: to prevent youngsters from learning the vices of their criminal elders. . . The first nonpunitive reformatory, dedicated to the correction of destructive and vicious youths through proper guidance and tutelage, was opened in Westboro, Massachusetts, in 1848 under the direction of Dr. Samuel G. Howe. Utilizing a congregate housing plan, imbued with the nurture theory of behavior, influenced by the mood of urban disenchantment, this innovative approach to the treatment of youthful offenders was plagued with failure from its inception. Farmers in the area were unwilling to accept placement of children. Financial strains were aggravated by overcrowding. Finally, a fire destroyed most of the institution in 1859. . . It was left to the Ohio State Reform School, established in 1854 under the direction of another Howe, Dr. G. E. Howe, to successfully implement the new theories of behavior modification and socialization in a minimal security, unwalled cottage plan institution. This, the first true industrial school, stressed individualized treatment, practical technical or agricultural training, with strong doses of religion and physical education."

(Atkinson, 1974, p. 174-175)

Prisons for youthful criminals became reform schools. Physicians dominated the correctional scene and therapeutic procedures to identify, diagnose, cure, and control the "illness" were initiated.

"The Whittier State School in Whittier, California, was originally opened in 1899. The school had eleven cottages on a 226-acre site. The superintendent of the facility was a physician; the assistant superintendent had only a high school education. The regular staff included eight school teachers, nine vocational instructors, three nurses,

> and thirty-eight group supervisors. The teachers were all certified by the state board of education, but there were no minimum qualifications for group supervisors. A psychologist and psychiatric social worker were irregularly available to render clinical services to those children who had been singled out by the staff for psychiatric evaluation. . . The Boy's Vocational School in Lansing, Michigan, was originally opened under the auspices of the state corrections authority as an industrial school. The shift in title from industrial school to vocational school was an indication of the shift in emphasis from agricultural training to the teaching of skills more useful in the urban environment."
>
> (Atkinson, 1974, p. 175)

As the medical cures failed, sociological research having identified the problems of the slums, broken homes, poverty, and a lack of employment skill began to promote theories of supposed treatment. Reformatories were redeveloped to provide a family environment for parentless children.

For all practical purposes, the institutions for delinquent youth were aimed at stabilizing society by removing deviant and dependent children. Any concern for effectiveness of these traditional and outmoded, borrowed European practices was not a factor in their rapid establishment. "The almshouse and the orphan asylum, the penitentiary, the reformatory, and the insane asylum, all represent an effort to insure cohesion of the community in new and changing circumstances. (Rothman, 1971, p. x, p. iii).

> "Within a period of fifty years, beginning in the nineteenth century, not only was the penitentiary discovered and spread across the face of the colonies, but by 1860, twenty-eight of the thirty-three states had asylums for the insane. This development

was coincidental with sudden rapid growth of the colonies and antedated only slightly the development of compulsory education and correctional programs for youth."

(Rhodes and Head, 1974, p. 27)

With the advent of the industrial revolution and urbanization, treatment at any cost was too slow and probably too ineffectual. Increased governmental control growing out of depression-fighting mechanisms mounted the juvenile court movement which went far beyond any thought for special treatment. Institutions became symbols of the period, reflecting the changes in society and, in particular, family life.

"One of the main forces behind the child-saving movement was a concern for the structure of family life and the proper socialization of young persons, since it was these concerns that had traditionally given purpose to a woman's life."

(Platt, 1969, p. 26-27)

The child-saver movement became a permanent aspect of American life when it was incorporated into the juvenile court system. The whole idea of new categories of childhood social deviance, e.g., incorrigibility, truancy, neglect, vicious and immoral behavior, were born.

"The juvenile-court movement went far beyond a concern for special treatment of adolescent offenders. It brought within the ambit of government control a set of youthful activities that had been previously ignored or dealt with on an informal basis."

(Platt, 1969, p. 29)

Society rationalized the rapid growth of institutions as a measure to protect children against the hazards of life which they

were not equipped developmentally to confront. "There is no lot as we all know so hopeless and helpless as that of a destitute orphan; its career of sin and ill, when neglected, is almost certain . . ." (Cincinnati Orphan Asylum, Annual Report for 1848, p. 3). The Boston Asylum and Reform School was constructed to provide for children suffering from "abodes of raggedness and want, where mingled with the cries of helpless need, the sounds of blasphemy assail your ears; and from example of father and of mother, the mouth of lisping childhood is taught to curse and revile." (Rothman, 1971, p. 170). By 1899 the child savers had already established the first juvenile court in Chicago. Again, the justification was still the same--that asylums and institutions were necessary for the moral treatment of helpless youth in preparing them for the great society promised in the American dream when, in fact, the caretakers, as they preferred to call themselves, were attempting to revalue children who represented a value structure not condoned by general society.

By the early 1900's, child guidance clinics were beginning in Chicago and Boston. A new progressivism, "weak minds" and "predispositions for evil" had begun to give way to organized mental health movement. In 1921, a national conference on the prevention of juvenile delinquency was held. The outcome was the five-year demonstration request for child guidance clinics which yielded the famous Healy and Bronner Report (1926). For the first time,

community treatment centers began to replace the idea of the asylum which essentially was operated on an out-of-sight, out-of-mind principle.

> "The clinic or 'center' had supplanted the asylum as the institutional defense against the menacing presence of irrationality without and within. We no longer needed to wall out this infectious menace. We now had the tools for threat-reduction through scientific labels, and isolate through programs of intervention. The populations at risk were still the destitute, the powerless, and the culturally different. The preferred image was still the character type, behavioral pattern and life style of 'successful,' 'hard-working,' 'gratification-delaying,' 'stable' middle-class Anglo-Saxon culture-bearers living quietly behind the doors of their own homes, on their own property, in peaceful neighborhoods. Now, however, with the advent of social sciences, and the technologies of social services, there was an objectively validated rationale for one's character-trait and life-style preferences. There were indices of pathology determining who was not socially and emotionally adapted. It was not a matter of arbitrary personal prejudice or social power. It was now a matter of science--the new national Church; and thus the whole social institution of mental health came into being. The partnership between bourgeois order and medicine, formed around the threat of irrationality at the time of the Reformation and the disappearance of the scourge of leprosy, moved away from the religious ambiance of 'moral treatment' into the aura of 'public health.' The powerful empirical antibodies of medical diagnosis and medical treatment would now be applied to social ills, through the invasion of disorganized community members. Medical treatment provided further protection against the contamination of the individual by individual through the psychological distance of the subject-object split maintained by modern science. Psychological mechanisms of displacement and projection were legitimized by this separation between the excitor and reactor. No longer did sane and insane share sin in common. The disease was within

> the excitor, not a mutual bond between excitor and reactor. The disease was communicable, but modern asepsis was more powerful than stone walls for protection against this type of transmission. No longer did the dominant culture-bearer have to look into the mirror of irrationality and say, 'We have seen the enemy and they are us.' Now, the threat to collective orderliness lay without."
>
> (Rhodes and Head, 1974, p. 30)

Institutional growth continued to reflect society in general following the great depression. The depression had brought what would eventually be vocation education in the institution. Skills for gainful employment were taught by having the youth take active roles in farming, shoe making, furniture repair, etc. Vocational craftsmen known as tradesmen were employed for the first time. No longer were incarcerated youth merely a source of cheap labor within the institution. The work in the institution served to teach skills that provided gainful employment upon release.

The First World War had alerted the American people to the number of functional illiterates in this country. Research in the 1920's and 1930's exposed the relationship between poor academic achievers and delinquency. School programs teaching academic subject material in institutions began in the 1920's. Remedial education was added in the 1930's, and special education in the 1940's. Special education was added to institutional programs emphasizing a concern for the mentally retarded delinquent and later those with serious emotional disturbances.

World War II had brought new meaning to an old word. Rehabilitation of the returning veteran wounded or suffering from the strain of combat through the veteran administration programs emphasized a number of relatively previously unheard of therapies. Speech and language therapy, physical and occupational therapy, and various forms of counseling and psychotherapy became household words. Institutional programs began to reflect these various therapeutic forms, especially those emphasizing counseling and psychotherapy. These approaches directed at modifying behaviors associated with delinquency were natural extensions of the sociological treatments of the early 1900's (teaching values and restricting family life by pioneering a home away from the poor-home model which the sociologists agreed produced delinquency).

The psychological approach did not emphasize the generation of a healthy institutionalized "home" environment as had the sociological approach. The psychological approach attempted to produce a healthy person, capable of making good personal decisions not dependent upon a particular home environment. The prohibiting problem to the psychological approach was the extreme cost in providing individual and even group psychological-psychiatric treatment to incarcerated youth. A lack of professional manpower to work in institutions may have been based on the semi-militaristic disciplines and beliefs which existed in them. Finally, however, the

evidence which seemed to result from psychological treatment was not always the most rewarding in favor of that treatment approach.

It would appear that in the development of institutions, they have completed a full cycle. They have tried almost all existing forms of treatment programs, beginning with instruction in moral principles through medical, sociological, educational, vocational, psychological approaches leading to community participation. Probably, to a great extent, the public still (1975) sees a correctional institution as a place to punish (as a cure) crime and evil. Therefore, it is punishment of the person, not the behavioral act, that must, in the public eye, always be considered. In a civilized country one form of punishment is to remove a person from his daily routine and place him into a controlling environment for a period of time. Administrators must be concerned with the question of whether time heals. They must also educate society to the realization that institutions have never served as a deterent for crime, or habilitated or rehabilitated criminals. Institutions merely contain them, protecting society. The only hope for treatment are community treatment facilities, especially for youthful offenders. What is needed are more alternatives to those currently existing, and joint cooperative ventures between treatment agencies.

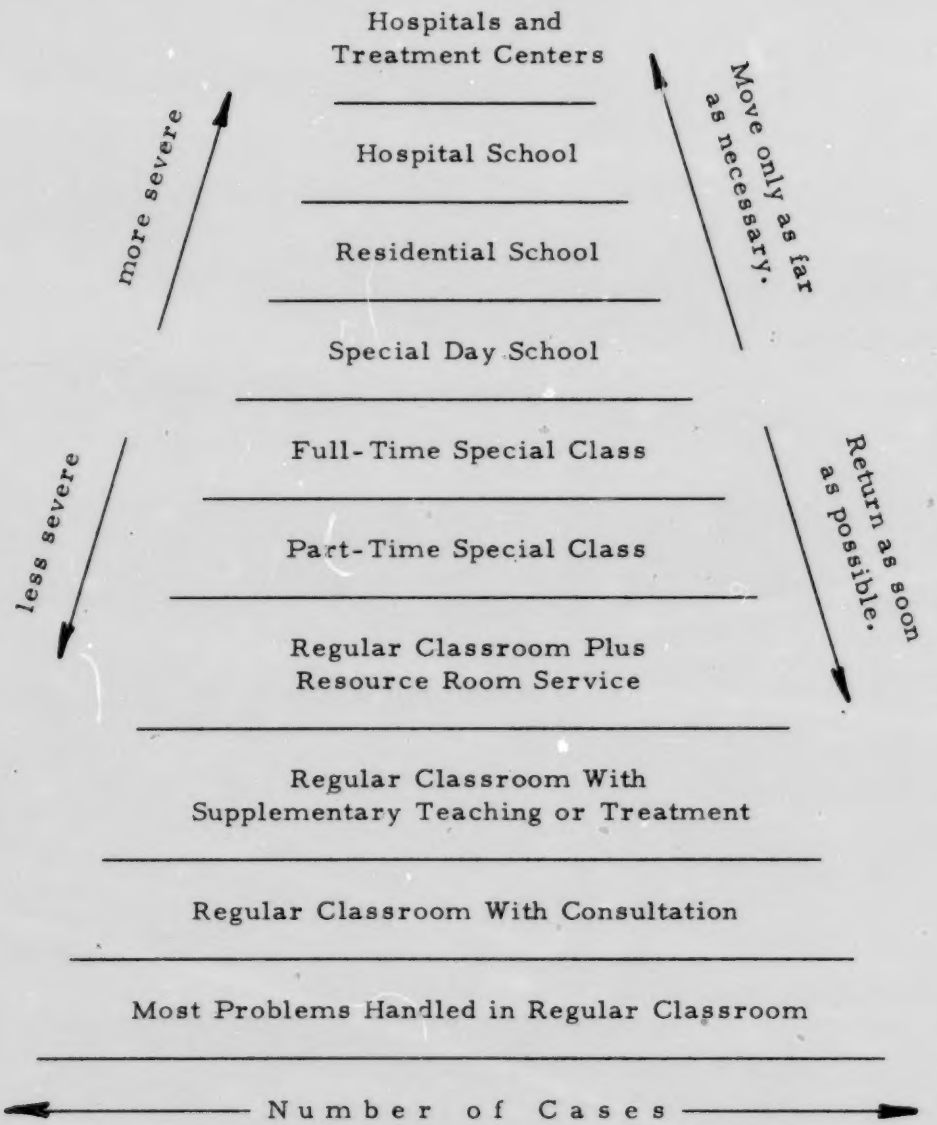
The point is that an institutional administrator must make a decision about the program his institution will offer. The problem with treatment programs in the past is that they were one sided, one

of a kind; all the youth had to fit the structured program. That never works. It appears that prescriptions of need based on a planned program for a given child are in order. They can be effective if an institution has the range of programs necessary to fit the program to the youth. Comprehensive programs for the 1970's to meet complex social-personal-cultural problems are necessary. The institution must become a part of the social order, not apart from it. That means it must have its own diagnostic reception centers, ability to set sentence, work study, and social community officers to follow up its former residents.

Reynolds (1962) has described a hierarchy of special education programs that deserves our attention for two reasons. First, it plainly reveals that a child should not be placed into an institutional program until every available aspect of community treatment is explored and eliminated as a possibility. It is simply not good enough to have residential institution and regular public school classes. A system of alternatives are needed between these two extremes. It is not appropriate to institutionalize a child for his failure to conform to a regular class, regular school, regular society--especially during a period of crisis in his life. Figure 1 provides a flow of the alternatives Reynolds deems important for handicapped children. Many of these same alternatives, interwoven between school and community, would make a set of salient features for adjudicated youth.

FIGURE 1

Special Education Programs



(Reynolds, 1970, p. 34)

The 1970's have marked the period of prevention and community involvement with greater attention being paid to these aspects than ever before. Project Newgate, furlows, pre-release, and community treatment are common expressions in our current correctional conversations.

> "The Highfields and Silverlake experiments have been well documented (McCorkle, Elias, and Bixby, 1958; Empey and Lubeck, 1971) as two of the more promising new approaches to institutional interventions. Both are aimed at normal, adjudicated delinquent boys of fifteen to eighteen years who have been diagnosed as having ecologically-based deviance problems. However, they differ in their approaches to the environmental intervention. Highfields has modified a modernized rural congregate plan for a small number of boys into a simulation of a real environment. Silverlake leaves the child within the troubling environment while utilizing peer group therapy to teach the boy to cope with that environment. Both emphasize 'job training' and 'career counseling and placement' as an integral part of their program. The primary treatment mode at Highfields has been the guided group interaction."
>
> (Atkinson, 1974, p. 176)

The working institutional administrator has three major tasks in making community-based programs work.

First, he must convince society that delinquency is a community problem, not a problem for a person or a family. Therefore, his efforts to educate the community at large on what he expects and is doing and needs to do must be achieved.

> "Perhaps the most touted new development in institutions has been the implementation of the 'return to community' treatment mode through the halfway or group home concept." (Alper and Keller, 1970)
>
> (Atkinson, 1974, p. 176)

Secondly, he must continue to upgrade the institution's staff, until they are capable of employing efforts directed at altering poorly developed behavioral patterns or a lack of behavioral alternatives for chronically disruptive youth. And, finally, he must work to facilitate articulation among all the agencies that teach a chronically disruptive youth the values of life. A liason of public, private, community, state, and federal relationships with single goal statements clearly communicated are the only way institutions can function in the societal mainstream. And if the institution fails to achieve that position, it is merely a backdoor for society to close out its "ugly" members. If that is true, then we have not advanced in our belief of human nature since the Renaissance.

Current State of the Art

If a capable young man or woman were to ask the question--How do I prepare for a career as an administrator of a state or private program for delinquent youth?--it would be difficult to answer. And, any specific answer would and could generate arguments. For instance, there is a theory that all administrators should be prepared as generalists, since the act of administrating a program is merely one of decision making. The advocates of the generalist position would advance arguments that all administrative

problems are similar in nature, and the structure or environment in which they occur is not consequential. They feel that the content question is not an issue; that is, it makes no difference if the decision to be made concerns treatment, maintenance (food, clothing, and shelter), or establishing a sentence of confinement within the institution.

Obviously, opponents of the general administrative point of view base their arguments on the knowledge that an administrator must have in the substantive content of his field. It is quite a different task to develop an administrative program in process than to describe the substantive content for that process. It is obvious that the two large divisions of a residential program are maintenance and treatment. Is group work a maintenance or treatment function? It is usually supervised by social workers skilled in group process, and has treatment intervention qualities, but frequently it occurs in cottages or residence halls after the evening meal. This issue, like so many others to be raised in this chapter, essentially is unanswerable unless put into the context of a given administrative framework.

Burrello (1973) has provided a current review on Research and Theory in Special Education Administration, stating that, "In the area of special education administration, little research has been reported in the literature." (p. 229). Rucker (1971) has grouped the studies in special education administration into four areas. These

are: 1) within-group studies: surveys of special education administrators' concern for a specific role or function they should or must perform; 2) between-group studies: comparisons of special education administrators with other groups of administration, in areas of attitudes, perceptions, role, and function of specific job tasks, or job analyses; 3) organizational climate studies: usually descriptive studies of a particular organization structure or pattern within a given type of administrative unit, e.g., school district, institution, etc.; and 4) descriptive studies: a study of those factors which influence the development, role, or function of a specified aspect of a special education program or service. Burrello (1973) concludes that special education administration is still in its early infancy and that the research to date has attempted to descriptively classify administrative phenomena into logical categories from which meaningful generalizations can be drawn.

Newman (1968) attempted to determine what tasks special education administrators performed based on: 1) actual performance, 2) ideal performance, and 3) relative importance of these tasks. He found no significant differences between what administrators actually did, and the tasks they felt should be performed. Newman found that very few data-based decisions were being made. He suggests that more direct observational research concerning tasks involved in the administration of special education programs is badly needed. The relationship of the special education director to

teaching activities determined how administrative tasks were ranked in order of importance--particularly planning, development, and evaluation of teachers. The attitude of other administrators toward the special education directors, and the role in the administrative hierarchy, also have a direct influence on the ranking of administrative tasks by the special education administrators.

If the complexities of administering special programs within institutions can be reduced to a dichotomous relationship, the two horns of the dichotomy would be custodial maintenance and active treatment. The custodial attitude is defined as a maintenance of the resident as a recipient throughout the institutionalization period. The view may be one of punishment for a crime, or the protection of the resident, or protection of society. A passive treatment plan may accompany custodial maintenance. Passive treatment may be regarded as time to think, good food, a clean bed, work detail, and moral, spiritual, and social sortation. The term "passive treatment plan" is used to denote that the intervention is not differentiated from one resident to another in keeping with long-range treatment objectives, generally written. It focuses more on maintenance of a safe, clean, orderly environment, one that is easily understood and does not require active participation by the resident for behavioral change, or in solving any socioemotional, cultural, group, or gang problem the resident may bring to the situation.

Active treatment intervention is defined as primarily viewing childrens' or adolescent behavior in educational, vocational, psychological, and sociological terms. The critical question is what constitutes the judgment that provides either a custodial or active treatment program. Most assuredly, different reasons would be elicited by different people. It is easy to rationalize the establishment of a treatment program for certain valid reasons, such as a lack of treatment facilities, limited budget, inability of the political or social system to accept an active treatment role. Whatever the reason, and all or any one of the above are certainly valid, the main one which inhibits an active treatment process is the administrator's attitude and personal beliefs. Burrello (1969) studied five need categories of administrators, based upon Rotter's (1954) social learning theory. The five need categories were: 1) recognition status, 2) protection-dependence, 3) dominance, 4) independence, and 5) love and affection within professional situations. To test the validity of the theory, the staff of fifty directors of special education were asked to react to eight simulated situations, depicting these administrators' need preferences in relationship to their scores on a Behavior Preference Inventory (BPI). A significant relationship was found between an administrator's need preferences and his respective staff's ranking of administrative need preferences. It was concluded that the Behavior Preference Inventory (BPI) apparently described the need values of special education administrators in approximately

the same fashion as their instructional subordinates perceived them. Courtnage (1967) studied the relationship between opinions and attitudes between public school superintendents and special education directors in the same district. He found that there was a strong agreement between the two groups of administrators regarding most responsibilities and issues of special education administrators. In another study, Parelius (1968) examined the perception of general administrators (superintendents) to directors of special education. There was no significant difference between the role-expectations of the two groups. There is little disagreement between directors of treatment programs and general administrators, on the outlook of the program's dimension. What other factors, then, may be responsible for determining the administrator's response for an active treatment program? Two factors may certainly be hypothesized. The most obvious might be knowledge for the content dimensions of what a treatment program should be. In other words, it may be that the more clinically, educationally, or vocationally trained the administrator, the more he will attempt to establish an active treatment program. On the other hand, the less formal training or professional preparation that an administrator has in treatment aspects for delinquents, the more likely he will be to attempt to institute a custodial effort which requires far less administrative arrangement. The reader should keep in mind that the last two sentences are purely speculative, and no data are available to

support or refute such a position. Certainly, an active treatment program is more costly in cash outlay, primarily in salaries for professional personnel, than a custodial maintenance program. But, the cost/benefit ratio of an active treatment program may be much less.

Job satisfaction is generally defined as the extent to which a person perceives his needs to be satisfied by the entire job situation. (Guion, 1958). Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell (1968) noted that "satisfaction results from the absence of role-personality conflicts--the individual is not required to do anything he does not want to do." (p. 129-130). Support is provided for this definition in a discussion of a theoretical model of the organization as a social system by Guba and Bidwell (1957). These authors indicated that satisfaction is a function of the two factors of expectations and needs. Expectations of the organization are goal oriented, and serve to limit and organize the behavior of individuals toward systematic goal accomplishment. Need dispositions of the individual stem from personological characteristics and serve to organize the behavior of the person to relieve such tension. Therefore, individual satisfaction is dependent upon the congruency of needs and expectations as perceived by the individual. If these factors are congruent, satisfaction results; if they are not, dissatisfaction results. (Guba and Bidwell, 1957, p. 433).

Bidwell (1955) empirically demonstrated a relationship between teacher satisfaction and the role expectations of administrators as perceived by the teachers. Additional investigators have shown that job satisfaction is related to individual need fulfillment. Rosen and Rosen (1955) suggested that satisfaction results when the individual sees occurring what he desires to occur, and that dissatisfaction results when he does not. (p. 312). Shaeffer (1953) noted that there was a positive, direct relationship between job satisfaction and need satisfaction.

Ross and Zander (1957), in a study of employee turnover, noted that workers whose needs were being satisfied by the job were more likely to remain on the job, than those whose needs were not so met. Gordon's (1955) research concluded that workers' self-estimated morale (job satisfaction) was strongly associated with need fulfillment. Blai (1962) also reported a positive and direct relationship between job satisfaction and the extent to which individual needs are satisfied by a position, i.e., the greater the needs satisfaction, the greater the job satisfaction.

Yuskiewicz (1971) examined the specific formulation presented by Guba and Bidwell, i.e., the congruency of needs and expectations as related to job satisfaction, by utilizing pupil control ideology as the criterion. His postulates were that job satisfaction would be directly related to the congruency between teacher-pupil control ideology, i.e., individual need orientation and their

perception of control ideology of teaching colleagues and principals, i.e., perceived role expectations. Findings support the hypothesis ($p < .001$) in all cases. Job satisfaction may be a two-way street. The institutional administrator may have to recognize the restrictions and find job satisfaction working with the confines of the organizational pressures placed on the institution, be they legislative, governmental, from the superintendent of correction, or from society in general.

Changing societal attitudes, or those of an institutional staff, to meet what he considers important needs for the residents within the institution he administers may be a long, deliberate process that requires a great deal of preparation. If the dilemma is one of adapting society's or some other administrator's view of one's role, as opposed to viewing oneself as a change agent, then the expectations for job satisfaction and treatment efforts could be on a collision course. The interaction between the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of a social system have been clearly delineated in Getzels' and Guba's (1957) model (see Figure 2). When the role-expectation of the institution and the personality-need disposition of the individual fail to be compatible, a clash between the two is almost inevitable.

The nomothetic dimension can be depicted in the following manner: social system → institution → role → expectation → institutional goal behavior. The role is considered to represent a specific

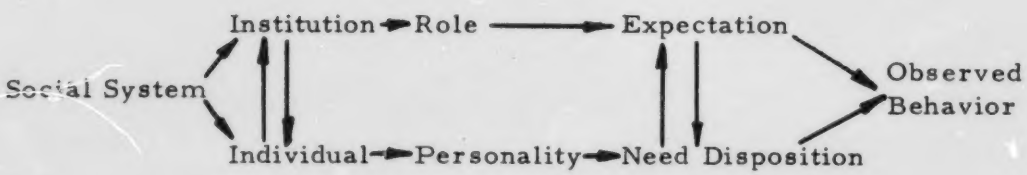
position or function within the institution. These specific functions are defined in terms of role expectations. Role expectation delineates what an employee is expected to do under specified conditions.

The idiographic dimensions are the individual, his personality, and his need dispositions. The personality is a dynamic factor providing the individual an active characteristic(s). Need dispositions are "goal oriented and influence not only the goals which individuals will try to attain in a particular environment, but also the way in which he will perceive and cognitize the environment itself." (Getzels and Guba, 1957, p. 75). Need dispositions, in their conceptualization, are perceived as patterned or interrelated. Getzels and Guba (1957) summarized their description of the two dimensions of behavior in the social system by suggesting that "the one is conceived as a rising in institutional goals and fulfilling goal expectations; the other as rising individual goals and fulfilling personality dispositions." (p. 78).

FIGURE 2

Getzels' and Guba's Description of
Educational Administration as a Social Process

Normative (Nomothetical Dimensions)



Personal (Idiographic Dimensions)

(Getzels, J. W. and Guba E. G. School Review, 1957, 65, 423-444.)

Essential Aspects of Administration

The late Ray Graham (1962) outlined the five necessities for the administrators of special education. These were:

> Philosophy - No organization is any better than its philosophy. And, if the philosophy of an organization is getting out of accepting responsibility, it will find a way. (p. 255).
>
> Leadership - Leadership inspires--it is creative and creativity is contagious. Leadership gives status and balance--it gets results. (p. 257).
>
> Organization - In special education, organization starts with objectives. It includes lines of authority and methods of communication. It is more than facilities and personnel. In special education this means making special education as definite, as acceptable, as permanent, and as respected as is the third grade, reading, or geometry. (p. 257).
>
> The Look Ahead - A planned future--programs of today must meet tomorrow's crisis and the future of the youth we serve.

Current Trends

To develop social programs, Graham stressed an active participation in legislation--help the lawmakers understand what is needed for tomorrow's citizens. His second consideration is that current programs must be accepted as community effort and responsibilities. As long as they are red brick buildings off

someplace in another town, an out-of-sight, out-of-mind philosophy will prevail.

The last was to achieve a balanced program, one with enough alternatives that it offers something to every child without bending the child to fit the program.

The administrator of an institution is a middle man. He stands squarely between the youth his programs serve, the staff that serves them, and the governmental and child-oriented agencies which relate to the institution. In essence he must look both ways. If he fails to pay close attention to either one of these potential trouble sources, he will be in the proverbial wash machine "wringer." Not that he can't or won't be in the wringer some of the time anyway. A governor of a midwest state attempted to keep a campaign promise by removing the superintendent of the large, single, boys' school. At that point he found replacing the former superintendent was a chore. Upon being rejected by an old friend who was a superintendent of schools, he asked why no one would take the position. The superintendent of schools replied, liberally paraphrasing former President Truman, that the political heat at that institution made it a very warm kitchen. The irony was that the new superintendent finally appointed by the governor was a former highway patrolman. State-level politics make most anything difficult, and yet, they are but one flank that must be covered if the institutional administrator is to survive.

Pulliam (1965) describes sixteen major training activities, or departments, responsible for specialized services to the residents. He wrote:

> The number of staff members reporting directly to the superintendent should be limited as much as possible. Some training schools operate with only two departments under the superintendent position--clinical services and business management. In addition, the superintendent's secretary and special committees report directly to the superintendent. Other training schools departmentalize down into education, recreation, special professional (including psychiatry, psychology, social work, and nursing), religion, cottage life, and business management.
>
> (Pulliam, 1965, p. 18)

The sixteen divisions he lists are:

1. Department of Clinical Services
2. Psychiatric Services Division
3. Psychological Services Division
4. Social Service Division
5. Religious Education Division
6. Cottage Life Division
7. Nursing Service Division
8. Academic Education Division
9. Vocational Education Division
10. Physical Education Division
11. Recreational Division
12. Department of Business Services
13. Fiscal and Personnel Division
14. Supply Division
15. Maintenance Division
16. Dietary Division

Planned Change

There has been a great deal written about the administrator as a change agent. The reason is the rigidity which characterizes institutions once programs are initiated and staff employed. The reason for the rigidity is that once people learn about something, particularly if they have to manage it, or have some understanding as to why an expenditure is appropriated, or a travel request legitimate, or an item on a purchase order necessary, they simply don't want to learn about a new program aspect which threatens to alter all they currently understand about that program effort.

Secondly, however, and even more importantly, is a fact that most institutional administrators generally lack adequate evaluative data on how well their current programs are doing. Therefore, it is difficult to know what and how a program effort should receive additional support, or in fact be changed.

To some extent, all programs of planned behavioral change ". . . are required to provide 'proof' of their legitimacy and effectiveness in order to justify public support. The demand for 'proof of work' will vary depending upon such factors as degree of faith in authority and competition between opposing programs or objectives. The current proliferation of new types of social intervention which challenge traditional approaches . . . and which compete for both public and financial support are under constant pressure to show that

they are better than established programs and deserve a larger proportion of available resources." (Suchman, 1967, p. 54).

It is generally agreed that change must be planned and proceed in an orderly fashion. Personnel, their attitudes and comfort (freedom from threat), is the singularly most important ingredient to achieving planned change. Generally, the aspect most critical to achieving change is the time necessary to appraise all those who will pass judgment on, or relate to the program, to have the information they need. Achieving change in a democratic process is slow. That is not to say the democratic process is the only way. There are times when decisions must be made and even a well-informed staff cannot decide on what should be accomplished. The administrator who makes the decision lives with the consequences. The administrator who fails to make decisions also lives with the consequences.

The key to planned change is the discussion time necessary to help the total staff understand the components necessary for the change and why, (at least those that wish to understand), develop a prototype if possible, later test it, and support continued use of the program with evaluative data.

Stufflebeam, et al., (1971) have developed a planned change model which provides the details for executing the implementation of a new program. The major components are research, development, diffusion, and adoption. Table 1 warrants careful reading and consideration. It augments the planning-evaluation program cycle

TABLE 1

Planned Change Model

	AGENCY	OBJECTIVE	PROCESS	CRITERIA	RELATION TO CHANGE
RESEARCH	Curriculum Dept. Three teams, each headed by mathematics specialist and one member of the evaluation unit	Having reviewed the literature, analyzed data, and examined current programs now in existence, three teams will select and evaluate information relevant to the in-service training program, as demonstrated by the production of Document I by a specified date in the PERT network established.	RESEARCH → EVALUATION	Internal validity - True representation of the literature External validity - Is information generalizable?	Provides basis for the development of model programs
DEVELOPMENT		Having reviewed and evaluated the literature, data, and programs, each of the three teams will develop and evaluate potential solutions to the problem, as demonstrated by the production of Document II by a specified date in the PERT network.	INVENTION → EVALUATION	Face validity - Representative of local needs Estimated viability - In terms of potential impact	Produces model for design stage.
		Having produced and evaluated a model for the program, each of the three teams will develop and evaluate a blueprint for implementing the model, as demonstrated by Document III, by a specified date in the PERT network.	DESIGN → EVALUATION	Feasibility and tractability	Produces design to construct program.
		With a design for the program, each of the three teams will develop and evaluate the components of their program, as determined by Document IV, by a specified date in the PERT network.	CONSTRUCTION → EVALUATION	Design specifications - Does it follow the blueprint? Individual performance - Does it work according to plan?	Produces the components necessary for implementing the design
		Given the components of the program, each of the three teams will integrate the components into an operating program for the objective, as demonstrated by Document V, by a specified date in the PERT network.	ASSEMBLY → EVALUATION	Design specifications - Does the total system follow the blueprint? Total performance - Will it work under normal conditions?	Produces the coordinated operating plan for the in-service and community awareness programs.
DIFFUSION	District Admin. Team	Given the operating plan for the in-service program, the administrative team will disseminate and evaluate the proposal for the program as demonstrated by a report on a specified date in the PERT network.	DISSEMINATION → EVALUATION	Intelligibility - Is the information complete, concise, and relevant? Fidelity - Does it describe the program clearly and truthfully? Pervasiveness - Does it reach all parts and levels of the program?	Provides information about each of the proposals developed.
		Given the evaluation report from the district survey and a demonstration presentation from each of the three curriculum teams, the administrative team will evaluate and select one program for the objective, as determined by a final selection report, by a specified date in the PERT network.	DEMONSTRATION → EVALUATION	All of the above	Provides program to be implemented or requires the process to be recycled if programs inadequate.
ADOPTION	Curriculum Dept. Teams	Given the program, the teams will select, train, and evaluate potential staff members as demonstrated by a report on the selection of staff to implement the program by a specified date in the PERT network.	TRAINING → EVALUATION	Quantity, continuity, aptitude, motivation, and proficiency of trained personnel.	Viability for operating the program.
		With trained personnel and a program for the objective, the team will pilot-test and evaluate the program to be initiated in August of 1968, as demonstrated by a report on the implementation and evaluation completed by a date specified in the PERT network.	TRIAL → EVALUATION	Adaptability, feasibility, and action.	Trial of program in setting to be implemented.
		Given a model for the training programs, the team will install and evaluate the program, as demonstrated by an end-of-project report on a specified date in the PERT network.	INSTALLATION → EVALUATION	Effectiveness and efficiency.	Operationalize program for use in the specified situation.
	Evaluation Unit	Having successfully reached the objective, the program and data will be stored and used as determined by future needs of the district. If the program fails to reach the specified objective, the program will be modified or redesigned for future action.	INSTITUTIONALIZATION → EVALUATION	1. Continuity - Is the program a functioning component of the system? 2. Valuation - Do practitioners rely on and defend its retention? 3. Support - Can the adopting agency afford its maintenance and periodic updating?	Establishes the program as part of the on-going activities of the district.

(Stufflebeam, et al., 1971, pp. 262-263)

discussed under the heading of evaluation which will appear later in this chapter.

Dynamics of Administration

The dynamics of administrating an institution certainly result from the administrator's view of the institution, its purposes, and missions. Goffman (1961) defined the total institution as a place of residence and work where a large number of like-situated individuals, cut off from the wider society for an appreciable period of time, together lead an enclosed, formally administered round of life. (p. XIII). He lists five types of institutions. These are:

1) institutions established for care of those who are incapable of developing self-help skills which generate fully independent living;
2) those established to care for persons incapable of self-care and who also provide a threat to society;
3) those established to protect society from the inmate within;
4) those established to accomplish a specific goal or mission--a military base is given as an example;
5) those which are retreats from the world, for example, monasteries, etc.

One of the distinctions of a so-called total institution is that all aspects of life are conducted in the same place, and under the same administrative provisions. That reality exists because institutions for delinquents have a small supervisory staff which manages a large number of residents. Therefore, unlike most social orders, the social mobility between the two strata is grossly restricted with the resulting social distance being prescribed in hard boundaries. The problem of the total institution is that the job of administrating it is a mechanical one. Therefore, the people in it become objects whose lives are bent to fit a goal, a mission, a program, a place to work, a place to live. Most certainly the majority of institutions for delinquents fits the description, and not because they wish to do so. (Unquestionably, that is not the most beneficial in terms of changing people for re-entry into society or obtaining, for that matter, effective cost benefit rations.) Recividism remains high in percentage from state to state. It is alarmingly high, exceeding 75% in some states. In the 1960 census, 45,000 youths were in institutions for delinquents. Another 33,000 under twenty years of age were in federal and state penitentiaries or reformation facilities. In addition, 12,000 were in detention homes, detention centers, or diagnostic and reception units. The problem is not that those responsible for maintaining delinquent youth are opposed to behavioral change. The problem is society, and therefore societal resources and attitudes prohibit change.

The only given, concerning a view of instituting behavioral change, is how to achieve such behavioral change. What is frequently lost in the translation of human behavioral change is what aspects are natural or normal learning and what change is relearning. Socialization is a normal developmental task that is learned naturally and although it must be taught, it doesn't require relearning, just everyday exposure, well taught by modeling. Many delinquent youth have not learned appropriate social values; therefore, models, values, and social as well as adaptive skill behaviors must be taught. That is entirely different from focusing on resocialization which implies unlearning and relearning. Therefore, the massive lumping of youth into institutions on a geographic basis, through court assignment without provision or thought of provisions for treatment, should be questioned. The differentiation of treatment by offering specialization in cottage living, school, or vocational programs, or the type of treatment personnel available is highly desirable.

At least three different types of institutions with a distinct type of staff can be identified. These are:

1) The first type of institution is one that provides for primary social learning. This facility would be primarily for young offenders who have no symptoms of psychopathology and have never had the opportunity to learn normative social values or adapt their social values to that of the larger society. <u>This is an educational facility</u>.

2) The second type of institution is a people-changing institution which provides retraining. It assumes that the youth has learned an unacceptable pattern of behavior and refuses to utilize an appropriate behavioral alternative. Frequently, job training and working through feelings about authority and hostility toward the larger social order are necessary. This requires an educational facility with a clinical treatment support staff.

3) The third type of institution is for those with mental, emotional, or physical handicaps that inhibit learning or relearning social, educational, or vocational skills. Brain injury, psychopathology, and mental retardation are examples of such problems. It is true that this would not be a high incidence of youth, but it is unquestionably a group who desires special consideration. In a study of poorly adjusting offenders in a large state institution, Truxal and Sabatino (1973) found that over one half of the chronic referrals to that institution's behavior court had known histories of acute problems associated with neurological deficits, e.g., seizures, head injuries, reoccuring headaches, severe illnesses resulting in comitose or semi-comitose conditions. Thus, a clinical treatment facility with a strong special education component is required for seriously emotionally disturbed youth.

A major issue confronting the administrator of an institution for delinquent youth has been the inability to differentiate the youth diagnostically for treatment purposes. Generally, most youthful

offenders receive similar treatment. The major variation is in the amount of treatment received, not the type. People-changing organizations which emphasize socialization seek to prepare persons to undertake "normal" social, educational, and other learning experiences within the institution. Resocialization requires the person to eradicate or undo previously learned behavior. Therefore, his corrective time must be longer and the range of behaviors he will display is more inappropriate, with a greater number of trial-and-error approximations to obtain a desired behavioral display. Most institutions are a mixture of the two treatment processes. School or educational programs are socializing processes. Clinical treatment, individual remediation, and one-on-one work experiences are used to obtain resocialization. Treatment of psychopathology requires a total therapeutic milieu which seldom exists in state facilities for adjudicated youth.

The question as to whether an institution can be both a custodial and treatment center must be answered in the negative. Why can't some children merely receive custodial maintenance, while others are offered the opportunity for treatment? If the institution is neatly divided in half, then it is possible. But, generally speaking, the goals are so different that it is impossible to administer, budget, or recruit trained personnel for a custodial facility in a manner similar to a treatment facility. Said another way, the missions of the two types of institutions are not similar in very many respects.

Street, Vinter, and Perrow (1966) discuss the problem of institutions with multiple goals. They raise the issues that provide an administrator difficulty in making judgment about what his program should be. The major problem that they cite is how various staff groups and segments in society interpret "rehabilitation" and custody. The inability of institutions with multiple goals is to define specific operational patterns. This is a particular when staff and residents are in discord over the purposes of the institution. They write:

> "Research on the correctional institution typically has been addressed to contradictions between the requirements of the goals of confinement (custody) and of change (rehabilitation) . . . a problem that we have suggested constitutes a major characteristic of the people-changing organization.
>
> Several sources of difficulty arise in judging effectiveness in the case of the juvenile correctional institution. First, the relatively ambiguous dual goals generate conflict and uncertainty both inside and outside. Various staff groups and special publics may give different interpretations to "rehabilitation" and "custody" and propose different priorities. Second, whatever the particular balance of official purposes, the generality and ambiguity of these goals fail to provide a clear-cut basis for deriving specific operational patterns--thereby stimulating contention over the most appropriate types of interaction between staff and inmates. Third, the relative absence of feedback information about the inmates' subsequent behavior prevents a choice of means based on demonstrable outcomes. Recidivism rates have been utilized, but the effects of the institutional experience are usually confounded with the influences of other social systems in which the releasees act. Moreover, crude rates of recommitment cannot be used to assess the relative efficacy of differentiated practices within the institution.
>
> These difficulties in judging effectiveness have a number of important consequences. We have suggested that the organization must develop an inferential way of

> making assessments. Perspectivism and an emphasis on ideologies are heightened and, because personnel subgroups adhere to somewhat different belief and value systems, there is likely to be conflict. This gives additional impetus to the focus on immediate inmate behavior. The process can be seen as a tendency toward goal displacement through an overemphasis on means. In more traditional institutions the shift of attention to internal processes results in an emphasis on procedures for control and stability and on protective architecture. . ."
>
> (Street, Vinter, and Perrow, 1966, p. 13-14)

It is somewhat interesting to note that Street, Vinter, and Perrow differentiate "people-processing" institutions from "people-changing" institutions. People-changing institutions establish the major goal of behavioral modification and develop all program efforts toward those ends. People-processing institutions focus on people, but mainly to serve them, providing sustenance and welfare; the major program effort is changing the environment for the achievement of that goal.

The modern administrator must be able to prepare and interpret clear mission statements that personnel can understand as the guiding goals for an institution. If the governor's budget is so restrictive that it provides food, clothing, and shelter; and society (the residents of that state) have not yet heard of a pre-release program, the chances are that the institution in question is a custodial center. If the juvenile judges set the sentence and assign the youth, then there is little an administrator can do to effect behavioral change for a seriously emotionally disturbed youth. It is inappropriate for a

custodial institution to expect or even demand treatment programs from a staff that does not have the preparation and is probably already overburdened. The role of an administrator in such a circumstance is to point out the problem to those who control the policy making or budget for that institution. But, it seems hypocritical for an institutional facility to claim to be something that is impossible for it to be under realistic constraints of manpower, facility, or budget. Constraints will always exist to creating and maintaining needed programs. History frequently judges administrators by their ability to order those constraints from advisory to promoting the efforts necessary to accomplish the task.

Decision Making

Administrators are decision makers. Passively or actively they make decisions simply because the absence of a decision is in fact a definitive policy statement in support of the status quo. Stufflebeam, et al., (1971) have outlined the making of a single decision as a complex process. They believe it to entail four distinct stages. These are: (1) becoming aware that a decision is needed, (2) designing the decision situation, (3) choosing among alternatives, and (4) acting upon the chosen alternatives. Stufflebeam (1972)

provides a.. illustration of the decision-making process as he believes it should happen:

The Process of Decision Making

1. AWARENESS
   a. Identify programmed decision situations.
   b. Identify unmet needs and unsolved problems.
   c. Identify opportunities which could be used.

2. DESIGN
   a. State the decision situation in question form.
   b. Specify authority and responsibility for making the decision.
   c. Formulate decision alternatives.
   d. Specify criteria which will be employed in assessing alternatives.
   e. Determine decision rules for use in selecting an alternative.
   f. Estimate the timing of the decision.

3. CHOICE
   a. Obtain and assess criterion information related to each decision alternative.
   b. Apply the decision rules.
   c. Reflect on the efficacy of the indicated choice.
   d. Confirm the indicated choice or reject it and recycle.

4. ACTION
   a. Fix responsibility for implementing the chosen alternative.
   b. Operationalize the selected alternative.
   c. Reflect on the face validity of the operationalized alternative.
   d. Execute the operationalized alternative, or recycle.

(Stufflebeam, et al., 1971, p. 53)

Institutional Program Models

Street, Vinter, and Perrow (1966) have described three different types of instructions on a custody-treatment continuum. These are:

> Obedience/Conformity. Habits, respect for authority, and training in conformity are emphasized. The technique is conditioning. Obedience/conformity maintains undifferentiated views of its inmates, emphasizes immediate accommodation to external controls, and utilizes high levels of staff domination with many negative sanctions. It is the most custodial type of juvenile institution presently found in the United States, for humanitarian pressures have eliminated the incarceration-deprivation institution as a viable empirical type.
>
> Re-education/Development. Inmates are to be changed through training. Changes in attitudes and values, acquisition of skills, the development of personal resources, and new social behaviors are sought. Compared to the obedience/conformity type, this type provides more gratifications and maintains closer staff-inmate relations.
>
> Treatment. The treatment institution focuses on the psychological reconstitution of the individual. It seeks more thorough-going personality change than the other types. To this end it emphasizes gratifications and varied activities, with punishments relatively few and seldom severe. In the individual treatment-variant, considerable stress is placed on self-insight and two-person psychotherapeutic practices. In the milieu treatment-variant, attention is paid to both individual and social controls, the aim being not only to help the inmate resolve his personal problems but also to prepare him for community living.
>
> (Street, Vinter, and Perrow, 1966, p. 21)

Formal Organization

The institution has two immediate environments to which it must relate. There is the world beyond the gate, especially those aspects which relate directly to the institution, e.g., the juvenile courts, welfare agencies, public schools, legislative and executive branches of state government, department of corrections, etc. Secondly, internal to the institution are the cottages or residence halls, work stations, and treatment facilities and personnel. It is beyond the scope of this discussion to examine the informal organization of an institution, simply because every institution in the United States has a different informal organization. An informal organization is the communication system within any organization that does not parallel the formal table of organization. Theoretically, at least, the nearer the formal and informal organizations are in fact, the smoother the operation and the less conflict. Conflict within an institution is generally represented by "snafus" in the communication process. At least they are the symptoms. It is a belief held by many practicing administrators that communication breaks down for other reasons than just the fact that some one person isn't talking or writing to another in the same organization. That is the reason that communication difficulties are discussed as symptoms of the overall organization.

Types of Formal Organization

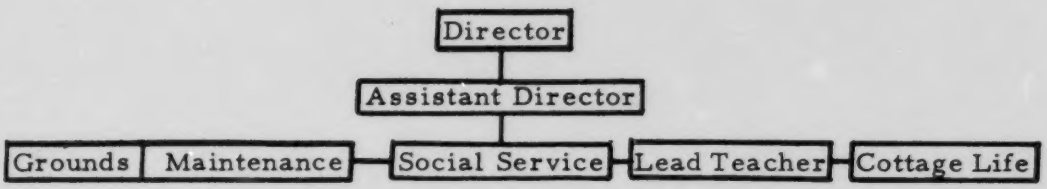
The two basic administrative considerations in establishing an organizational structure within an institution are: (1) for facilitation of staffing pattern effectiveness and (2) bringing into close physical and communication proximity, staff members who must relate if efficiency of operation is to be achieved. Generally, departmentalization with some degree of communication and coordinating autonomy provides for the second aspect of an organization.

The most essential types of departments are for custodial care and treatment. How these two essential components are further departmentalized depends upon the size of the institution, its history, major goals and missions, existing staff, and especially key administrative or professional personnel. One administrative rule of thumb is that a chief administrator can have no more than five to seven subordinates reporting to him. If that rule is followed in constructing an organizational relationship, then size and function of the institution becomes the major consideration in establishing a table of organization. In a small facility a chief administrator may want to have an assistant director who like he is responsible for everything. They will operate more on a cabinet-level relationship than chief and assistant. That type of organization is not a very good one for many reasons. The reasons range from duplication of function to second guessing one another. Some small youth camps of 20 or so total

employees with less than 100 residents do operate with such an organization. Larger and more complex institutions with multiple treatment programs will not operate effectively from such an organization platform. An example is provided in Table 2.

TABLE 2

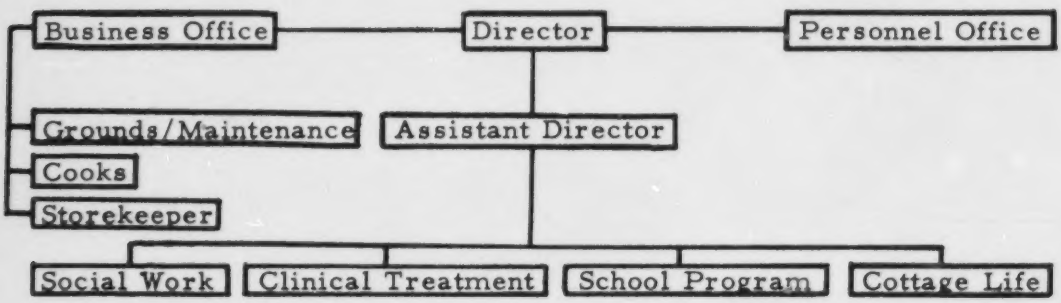
Table of Organization - Type 1



Assistant directors can serve to direct the custody and treatment of an institution permitting the administrator to be free to work with the budget and recruit personnel. Table 3 is an example of this type of organization.

TABLE 3

Table of Organization - Type 2



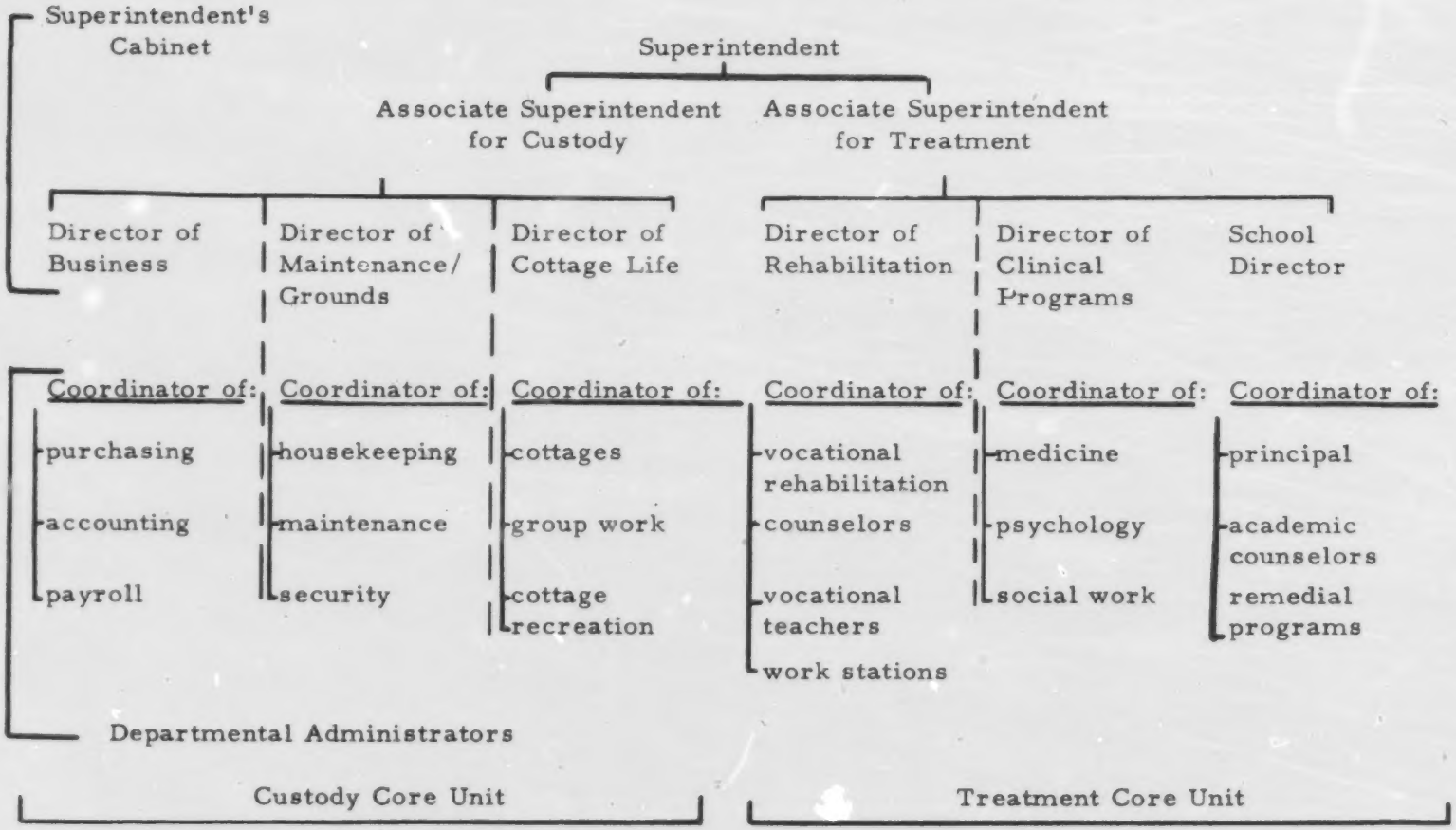
The major difficulty with a Type 2 organization is that the director is usually a business manager. The assistant director must therefore provide program leadership since the director is concerned with cost-efficient administration and frequently not effective program development. The assistant director is also responsible for a range of activities that he cannot possible comprehend how they fit into an overal treatment milieu. Therefore, what is happening is a custodial maintenance program is probably being facilitated with the school program and custody emerging as the dominant factors. The role relationship of social service and clinical treatment becomes mechanical and low priority in terms of an active treatment process. They will probably not we well integrated in either the school or custodial programs. Frequently, they are appendages to the institutional program.

There are many other types of organization structures. It is extremely difficult to find one that is better than another because tables of organization must be built around the strengths and interest of existing staff, or for that matter, sometimes to compensate for the weakness of personnel of program. A very capable administrator upon being moved into a new position in a facility with a long history was asked how he would reorganize it. He answered automatically that his first year's work was to study the relationship of existing personnel to the table of organization in operation for a period of one year. It may be he felt that change for the mere sake of change, was less than valuable, in fact, chaotic. Institutions, organizations, administrative structures are people, or at least they reflect people. An effective table of organization reflects a balance between establishing departments that can maximize communication between members of that department and achieving a relationship between department administrators that promotes the overall good of the resident over any department and program aspects. Therefore, one effective administrative organization structure is to have fairly large multiple departments with program coordinators reporting to a director. The assistant director is a specialist with administrative skills. In a large organization, a director would report to an associate superintendent for treatment or custody. In a smaller-sized unit, the director would report directly to the chief administrator. Communication lines are kept clear by providing a

cabinet-level meeting each week. Cabinet officers are staff officers above the coordinator level, that is, superintendent, associate superintendents, and directors. Directors in turn have departmental meetings with total coordinators. Coordinators are line officers. More frequently, coordinators have program-level meetings. To augment new programs or prevent certain predictable problems, or to quell problems in the making, core staff are identified and brought together at the request of the associate superintendents. Core staff are directors and coordinators in either treatment or custody capacities. In other words, each associate superintendent has an identifiable core staff which is made up of his line and staff officers (directors and coordinators). Bringing together core staff facilitates communication horizontally as well as vertically. Table 4 presents a graphic representation of complex multiple departmental structures.

TABLE 4

Table of Organization - Type 3



Systems Analysis

What are the management alternatives for administering an institution, since the organization structures of institutions vary so greatly? Banghart (1969) writes: "The field of educational administration is becoming concerned with the set of quantitative-scientific techniques that assist the educational administrator in the decision-making process. These techniques are customarily referred to under the term 'systems analysis.' (p. 3).

An administrator has two major options. First, he must be concerned with the care and well being of the residents. That means the building, meals, heating plant, and the custodial staff must be provided and maintained. The programs within the institution and the manner in which those programs are contiguously articulated with the real world are not always pressing issues. An administrator may elect to delegate or resolve himself of any concern for these programmatic aspects. The reason most commonly given is that in preparing and administering the budget, providing for the physical plant, and essential custody personnel, a working administrator has all he can possibly do. That is why two associate or assistant superintendents under one chief administrator is a fairly common arrangement. One administers the custodial program, and one the treatment program. To prohibit warring between them, the chief decision maker must have the goals for the institution clearly in mind.

If he doesn't have the overall goals, objectives, and means to achieve them tied into a well-thought through format, he will be administering from predictable crisis to predictable crisis. There must be some means of accounting for each of the goals and objectives as they relate to given aspects of the programs.

The concept of systems is useful in keeping the administrator informed on where his programs are, and what needs to be accomplished. Systems analysis is a quantitative-scientific tool for tracking program aspects and making decisions about them. It is hoped that most of the decisions made are based on evaluative data stemming from a pre-planned evaluation process. Two of the systems analysis techniques are: 1) Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT) and (2) Critical Path Method (CPM). Both of these techniques require institutional goals and program objectives to be laid out in a flow chart arrangement with the charting of events predicted until the end or terminal event is achieved. The network is an extension of the flow chart events. All activities have an onset, an activity path, and terminal or end objectives. It is an administrative planning-evaluation guide to those goals he wishes to accomplish. Such a guide removes the administrator from "flying" by the seat of his pants. It gives him radar-detection-type instrumentation to verify his approach to selected goals.

The term <u>systems</u> carries the connotation of analysis and development . . . no comprehensive system development can take

place without prior systems analysis. Systems . . . denotes all activities involved from the original analysis of the problem through the final implementation of recommendations . . . utilization of scientific mathematical techniques applied to organizational operations as part of management's decision-making activities (Banghart, 1969, p. 20).

Lerner (1971) defines a system as:

> a set of objectives, together with relationships between the objects and between the characteristics of these objects. Systems analysis deals with the selection of elements, relationships, and procedures to achieve specific objectives and purposes. . . A systems approach is extolled as a technique to prevent splintering and fragmentation of a field by bringing component parts, subsystems, or elements into a total relationship with each other . . . One goal of systems analysis is, in fact, to provide a means of crossing boundaries and of bringing diverse elements and operations and specialists toward a definite systems purpose. (p. 16).

Enormous administrative effort is expended each year identifying the sum of the parts of particular administrative problems. The character of an organization has many contributing aspects, the personalities and skills of its members, and the view maintained by those who use its services in an attempt to satisfy the reasons for its existence (credibility). To initiate any program effort without a game plan will soon lead to chaos. The inevitable problem of identifying the players in a game that is poorly understood and has no systematic rules by which to be played is the same as taking a trip in a car to an unfamiliar spot without a road map. The roles of key staff members

must be clearly delineated by all the organizational members of an institution, or confusion will result. The role differences between custody staff and treatment staff must be understood in achieving total program effort. When a classroom teacher recognizes a child with a serious reading problem, to whom does she direct the referral and what does she expect in return? Should a remedial program be in the school, clinic, or residence? These and other issues are the aspects that contribute to a total program, and they must be understood in light of coordinated program efforts.

As was said previously, there is a sharp distinction between program content and process. Program content is the substance or what actually happens in the institution or makes the wheels of an organization run. The process is the administrative or treatment structure which guides the operations; it is the frame, axle, and hubs upon which the wheels turn. A systems design is not to be misconstrued as providing substantive considerations or instructional content to a program. Systems analysis provides a study of the process upon which the content is superimposed.

Kipfer (1973) writes:

> One should keep in mind that the application of analysis is to <u>function</u> and not <u>content</u>. There is a great deal of disagreement in the field of special education relating to specific content areas. Kelly (1971) has described a special education paradigm listing basic postulates related to special educational functions, and uses the term <u>therapy</u> as synonymous with instruction. Kelly's basic postulates are:

(a) the major function of special education is therapy;

(b) therapy is effective only insofar as it accomplishes the basic purpose of special education, i.e., it induces desirable behavioral changes which are of eventual benefit to its subjects;

(c) benefits of therapy can be observed in some way, but what is "desirable" is essentially dependent upon the social-cultural-teleological context of the therapeutic setting;

(d) administrative-supervisory, research, and diagnostic functions of special education are ancillary to the major function of therapy;

(e) ancillary functions must relate directly or indirectly to therapy; functional aspects which do not relate to therapy in some way may be regarded as spurious; and

(f) a comprehensive paradigm of the therapeutic process should relate to its ancillary functions to the extent that statements describing the processes of administration-supervision, research, and diagnosis can be derived from the original paradigm.

Ryan (1972) describes the growth of correctional institutions in the United States as "haphazard and idiosyncratic" rather than "orderly and planned." It is her belief that a two-fold challenge exists in mandating and updating educational programs in institutions. These are an educational management process: (1) to maintain an effective, efficient educational system, and (2) to provide accountability of educational programs on decisions or policies being made in institutions. It is Ryan's view that ". . . corrections decision-makers

must be prepared to answer to the citizenry, local governing bodies, state legislatures, and Congress when confronted with: 'What were the intended outcomes of education in this correctional setting?' . . . To achieve this effectiveness, it is imperative for management to have an adequate knowledge of probably consequences before decisions are made." (p. 18).

Ryan (1972) has defined eight basic functions and the relationship between and among its functions in establishing a decision-making system for administrative management of educational programs in adult correctional institutions. These eight functions are: (1) conceptualizing the system; (2) monitoring the system philosophy and assessing needs; (3) defining goals and objectives; (4) processing information; (5) hypothesizing plans; (6) testing plans; (7) measuring outcomes; and (8) evaluating individuals and programs. Figure 3 provides a graphic display of the model Ryan recommends for the management of institutional educational programs. A working description of the eight elements in the systems flow is as follows:

(1) Conceptualize the System.

> Basis for educational management is a description of the elements to identify relationships of the supersystem. This conceptualization of the system should set the stage for subsequent synthesis which will meet basic requirements of an effectively functioning system by achieving wholeness of the elements, compatibility between system and society in general, and congruence between system synthesis and purpose. (Ryan, 1969).

(2) Assess Needs.

A system cannot function effectively apart from the real-life environment of which it is a part. (Banathy, 1968). Social factors, cultural factors and values, provide the information along with an underlying philosophy which provides direction to educational management in correctional settings. Immediate and long-range goals are the factors influencing educational management. The end result of monitoring philosophy and assessing needs should be identification of problem areas and proposed means for alleviating them. The final step in analyzing of the situation should be a Go--No-Go decision in indicating whether the identified problem is amenable through the available programs.

(3) Define Mission, Goals, and Objectives.

The next task at hand is one of stating the mission and defining goals and objectives. The elements or functions must contribute effectively to achievement goals, and it is essential that educational management rest on a careful determination of the objectives. This includes an appropriate prioritization of goals and objectives.

(4) Process Information.

The feedback loop between process information and goals and objectives mandates an information-based control over proposed objectives. In each situation, feedback from processing information to defining goals and objectives will improve the system. The information acquired about learners, society-culture and existing institutional programs is analyzed and synthesized to form a basis for developing future goals and program directions.

(5) Formulate Hypotheses.

The crux of educational management lies in the design of educational plans. (p. 23). The educational plans formulated take the form of program specifications. Specification of limits to a program plan entails setting boundary conditions for performance. Time is a major factor in planning projects and the system design must be able to accommodate for time variation. Information constitutes an important constraint on design. The history of corrections is fraught with a lack of data to indicate long-term effectiveness of the system. (Ryan, 1972, p. 24).

(6) Testing Hypothesized Plans.

The programs implemented and any alternative strategies to achieve the system goals must be tested for their effectiveness. Miller, et al., (1971) makes the point that strategies contain communication elements and that strategies which have been validated through feedback and control are the most reliable management techniques for achieving system goals. Strategies are developed to create learning environments and experiences. (Ryan, 1972, p. 25). It is to that end that prototype programs should be constructed and tested.

(7) Measuring Outcomes of System Operation.

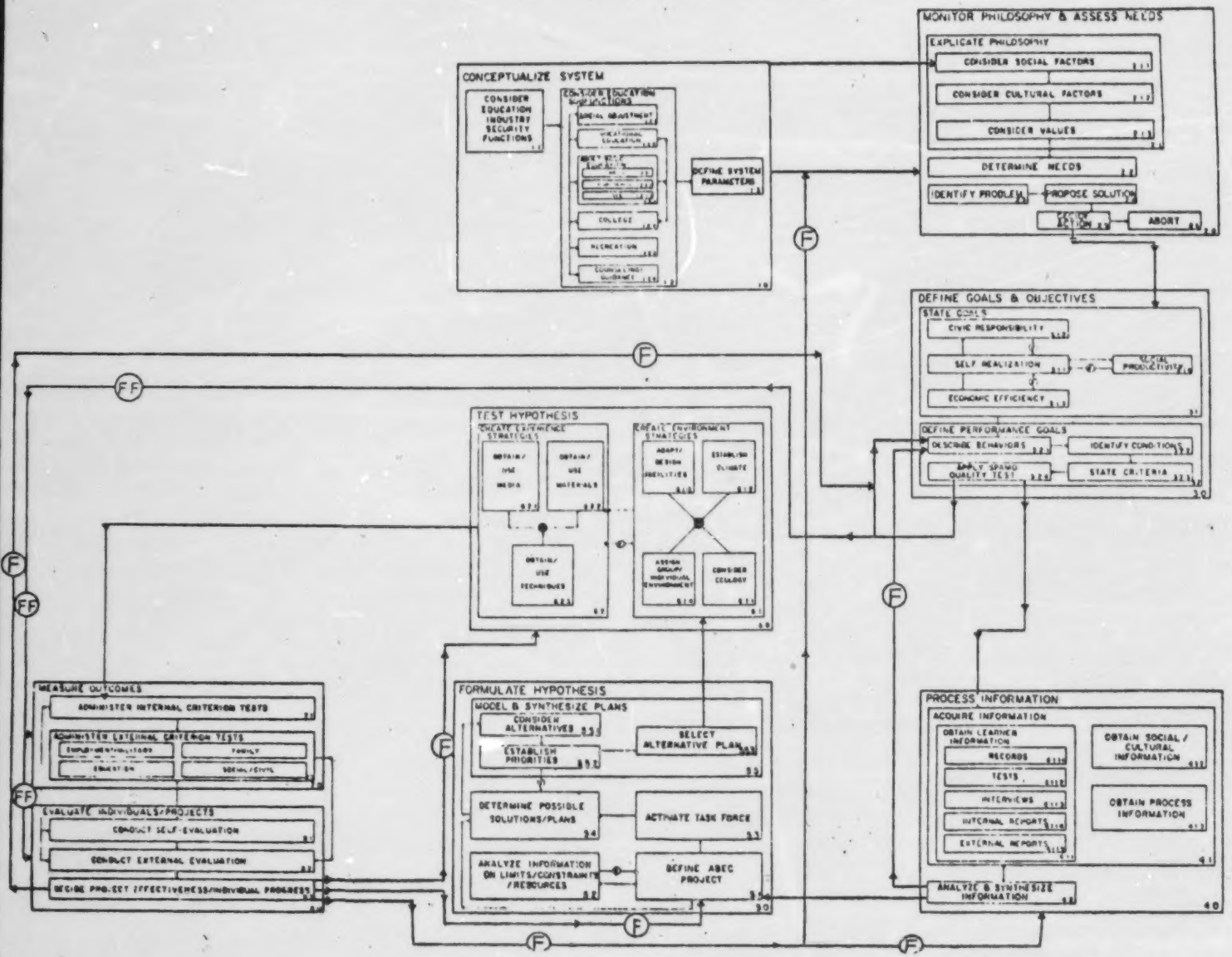
Measurement of outcomes is a precondition to evaluation of program plans and validation of the strategies implemented. Measurement must precede evaluation, as the data produced from measuring operations outcomes and products will provide the basis for judging system effectiveness.

(8) Evaluation of Individuals and Projects.

Evaluation is a process of determining the value of performance or assigning outputs. The results of evaluation are fed back into the system to modify it. It is from the evaluation data that management decisions in support or rejection of the educational program are made.

FIGURE 3

Model of Adult Basic Education in Corrections



(Ryan, 1972, p. 22)

Evaluation

The major dimension of any planning activity is the evaluation which determines the degree to which the objectives are being accomplished. Worthern and Sanders (1973) write: "Evaluation is one of the most widely discussed but little used processes in today's educational systems." (p. 1).

Stufflebeam, et al., (1971) define evaluation as "the process of delineating, obtaining, and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives." (p. xxv). They add: ". . . the major reason evaluation is in difficulty is that knowledge of the decision-making process and of the methodologies for relating evaluation to decision making is woefully inadequate." (p. 16).

The few people with responsibility for funds tend to ask why special children are "special" and, even more, whether special education is doing more for these children than the regular classroom could do. If we are to defend our programs, we must have facts.

Increasing pressure is being placed on special educators to provide evidence that efforts with exceptional children are beneficial. (Lessinger, 1971). If charged to communicate the effectiveness of their programs, they must (1) state precisely what outcomes the program is designed to facilitate, and (2) present evidence that the outcomes have, in fact, been produced. These demands on classroom teachers for accountability necessitate the use of an

evaluation process; but the principles of evaluation may well be one area where preservice academic preparation was limited or non-existent for most teachers.

Institutional administrators and the classroom teacher, faced with the day-to-day reality of changing the behavior of delinquent youth, do not need to learn another abtuse theoretical model or be overwhelmed by the academic prose in which most evaluation articles are written. Nor do they need what Ohrtman (1972) has aptly described as the "in and out researcher . . . gets two sets of kids, do A to one group and B to another, compare them, and one group does better at the .01 level--then off to the next project." (p. 377). Vergason (1973) and Jones (1973) have delineated many of the problems associated with the evaluation process. All too often there has been more effort required than value provided. Jones (1973) writes that before any school district should presume to devise a system of accountability for special education, the following questions should be answered:

1. What are the common and specific goals to which the administrator and the program are striving?
2. What student, community, or societal-need inventories are available, on paper, to indicate change strategies which should be undertaken?

3. What specific and measurable performance objectives have been written down that would enable outside agencies, the residents, and staff to understand the minimum expectations of the specific program efforts that relate to them?

4. What analysis of the existing delivery system is available to indicate that the current educational input approach is manageable as compared to the alternatives?

Vergason (1973) states that one area in which educators can be more definitive about their programs is that of standardized terminology. Stufflebeam (1972) has recently assumed a position similar to that of Scriven (1967) who defines the fundamental goal of evaluation as determining the value of a program or instructional activity. Originally, Stufflebeam (1968) saw evaluation as a systematic process of "delineating, obtaining, and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives." (p. 129). The CIPP (Context, Input, Process, and Product) model he developed represents a frame of reference for presenting alternatives to decision makers and can provide a classroom teacher with information about her program; but this evaluation model is too complex for daily use in the classroom.

Other evaluators have discussed plans for curriculum and course evaluation (Cronbach, 1963; Krathwohl, 1965; Lindvall, et al., 1964; Michael and Metfessel, 1967; and Popham, 1969), while still

others have presented theoretical evaluation models (Atkin, 1969; Hammond, 1969; and Provus, 1969). These plans generally represent similar processes for conducting educational evaluations, but they do not offer a simplified procedure for the already overburdened classroom teacher to use.

The term evaluation is not a good one because it increases anxiety without having a particular universal meaning. All sorts of atrocities have been accomplished in the name of evaluation. To reduce the ambiguity associated with the term, we are concerned with context evaluation and not personnel. In the next part of this chapter, evaluation procedures for describing program output, personnel effectiveness, and specific classroom delivery of objectives are discussed. The task of personnel evaluation is not a prerogative of an outside review (external to the institution). Personnel policies and the evaluation of people hired by an institution must be established in line with that individual and that institution's expectations for career development. Proger, Carfioli, and Kalapos (1973), in a discussion of evaluating instructional materials, have made some very fitting remarks:

> The careless use of the term "evaluation" has led to misconceptualized models. . . An exhaustive description of characteristics of the learner, the material, the setting of instruction, and so on, does not constitute evaluation, although it is useful in delimiting the generalizability of evaluation results. Evaluation refers to the actual judgments that are made with regard to the quality of the material, its success in use with students, and other strengths or weaknesses. True materials

> evaluation implies that a definite position (favorable or unfavorable) is taken concerning the materials evaluated; neutrality is not a virtue. It is unfortunate that some evaluation models for materials have relied almost totally upon descriptive analyses of materials and have disregarded judgmental evaluations. Items on a materials-evaluation form that deal with description should be clearly labeled as such. The same should be done for items that concern judgmental evaluations. When this distinction is made, it is apparent how little (and that of poor quality) is being done in the genuine sense of materials evaluation. (p. 272).

The above quote was not added to elicit support for making subjective or qualitative judgments. The point is that judgments will always be necessary, even when a criteria or standard is established. The crucial question is: "What is the standard or criteria and who is doing the evaluation?" In answer to the question of where to begin, begin by evaluating the content of the specific institutional program's objectives to determine the difference in what a program says it is doing, and what in fact it is doing in relationship to its objectives. The data can then be used to make a sound administrative decision reflecting an effort to plan for the future on the basis of the evidence revealed by the evaluation.

Goals and Objectives

There are several goals (unmeasurable aims) and objectives (measurable) which are inherent to an institutional program. The main goal will be to provide necessary program opportunities for

youth to alter his behavior at an optimum level and rate, with consideration for his ability, race, sex, and socioeconomic level and socioemotional development. The secondary goals will be to provide continued support in the youth's efforts to achieve the skills necessary to leave the institution and perform normally in the community. Some other possible goal statements for institutionalized delinquents are:

1. to isolate, segregate, or label as <u>few</u> children from mainstreaming programs;
2. to keep the youth's school and community informed about his progress and needs in planning an orderly re-entry for him from institution to community;
3. to provide additional programmatic support for youth who experience difficulty adjusting to institutional programs;
4. to provide demonstration and inservice assistance to custodial and treatment staff to encourage and promote positive program climate;
5. to provide a value-learning system that will promote youth to make decisions concerning their lives that will ultimately reduce recidivism;
6. to provide continuous planning and monitoring of youth who have serious enough problems so that institutionalization was required;

7. to provide continuous feedback to the youth and his family on his progress as he participates in various programs or service aspects;
8. to provide evaluation of all programs according to criteria established with a systematic procedure which denotes the quantitative and qualitative aspects for the program;
9. to provide a systematic diagnostic procedure that will permit identification of youth requiring unique programs;
10. to provide for the public image of the institution.

Objectives are measurable aspects that reflect the process and product of a given goal. An objective should state what is to occur, in what time frame (when) or order, and how it is to occur. Objectives must be specific to each factor or function listed in the task areas. This idea of specific objectives for each function, under a general program goal for a given task area, is rather self-explanatory in developing a program-planning guide. The first phase in evaluating a program is to carefully listen to what the administrators, teachers, and students say a program should accomplish. Two things should be carefully noted, as the information will later be compared to what the district's goals are. First, what is the attitude or commitment to the program? It should be understood that the people associated with the program also believe in it personally. The absence of such belief

generates clichés and an air of triteness. Secondly, program constraints must be determined. The constraints of implementing a learning disabilities program are generally financial limitations, staff (level of training, type of training, ability), and the physical facilities that are currently available. The most important constraints are the attitudes within the system as well as those outside it, primarily the community.

All programs have to be developed within the budgetary framework and facilities available. It is possible, however, to make internal changes which could have a great effect on altering constraints. An example of a change of this nature might be the use of limited funds to employ a person to initiate a desired program in one cottage when it is desirable to have it in all cottages. But, it may be better for the sake of the program to provide an intensive effort at that one cottage for one year. As the program sells itself, budget will be added (or, if necessary, the person could be moved to another building the next year) until every cottage in the institution has an equal opportunity to benefit, as opposed to spreading one person too thin and obtaining a watered-down effort.

A simplified planning guide has the following dimensions:

Goal:

Objective(s):

Strategies:

Product/Outcome:

Evaluation:

Timeline with Date of Completion:

Personnel:

Cost/Benefit Ratio:

Criteria or Standard:

Program Evaluation

Accountability is a problem for all administrators. The demand and need for accountability in program evaluation is especially acute. The focus of this section is to provide administrators of institutions with guidelines for determining the effectiveness of their programs. Secondly, a discussion of staff evaluation will be completed; and finally, a simplified classroom evaluation process for teachers to self-critique their instructional activities.

As mentioned earlier, the need for program evaluation is the result of public demand for "proof" that programs and services to youth are effective and beneficial. Initial efforts in program evaluation focused on theory and the development of evaluation models with limited implementation (Lilly, 1970). The following discussion hopefully will encourage administrators to lift program evaluation from paper and put into practice.

Evaluation has been defined as "the process of delineating, obtaining, and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives." (Stufflebeam, et al., 1971, p. 40). Program evaluation is more than "cosmetic cardiac," judging the success or failure of a program on the enthusiasms of students, parents, and teachers. Program evaluation demands that actions (decisions) be based on systematically collected and analyzed information (data).

Stufflebeam (1969) conceptualizes such a plan as follows:

Evaluation Design

A. Focusing the Evaluation
   1. Identify the major level(s) of decision making to be served, e.g., local, state, or national.
   2. Project the decision situations to be served and describe each one in terms of its locus, focus, criticality, timing, and composition of alternatives for each level of decision making.
   3. Define criteria for each decision situation by specifying variables for measurement and standards for use in the judgment of alternatives.
   4. Define policies within which the evaluator must operate.

B. Collection of Information
   1. Specify the source of the information to be collected.
   2. Specify the instruments and methods for collecting the needed information.
   3. Specify the sampling procedure to be employed.
   4. Specify the conditions and schedule for information collection.

C. Organization of Information

1. Provide a format for the information which is to be collected.
2. Designate a means for performing the analysis.

D. Analysis of Information

1. Select the analytical procedures to be employed.
2. Designate a means for performing the analysis.

E. Reporting of Information

1. Define the audience for the evaluation reports.
2. Specify means for providing information to the audiences.
3. Specify the format for evaluation reports and/or reporting sessions.
4. Schedule the reporting of information.

F. Administration of the Evaluation

1. Summarize the evaluation schedule.
2. Define staff and requirements and plans for meeting these requirements.
3. Specify means for meeting policy requirements for conduct of the evaluation.
4. Evaluate the potential of the evaluation design for providing information which is valid, reliable, credible, timely, and pervasive.
5. Specify and schedule means for periodic updating of the evaluation design.
6. Provide a budget for the total evaluation program.

(Reprinted from a paper delivered by Daniel Stufflebeam, "Evaluation as Enlightenment for Decision Making," at Sarasota, Florida: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, January 19, 1969, p. 48.)

Performance Appraisal of Personnel

One of the recurring issues in the performance appraisal of personnel is to whom, and in what chain of command, are they responsible. Traditionally, personnel are hired through an institution or regional or state administrative structure. They are then assigned to an institution. The "who" they are responsible to usually is an odd arrangement and generally is an unwritten rule. Technically, in terms of competencies, they are evaluated by departmental supervisors. However, their survival usually rests on public relation skills. The word "survival" is emphasized because most employees are evaluated in terms of their relationships with other staff, community, and finally the youth rather than on the basis of the skills (competencies) they possess. This is a sad commentary, but a true one.

The unresolved question is the identity of "how and who" among the supervisory and departmental personnel the personnel evaluation will be accomplished. More important is a determination of the expectations of each of these people for a given employee working in a given capacity.

Following are some guidelines which Redfern (1963) has suggested for principals to use with teachers, and they are applicable to supervisors involved in personnel appraisal generally:

1. Avoid the "boss complex." Help the teacher feel that the principal doesn't consider himself foremost as a member of the "administrative hierarchy."

2. Clarify the role of the principal and teacher in the evaluation setting.

3. Seek to establish that both the teacher and the principal should be primarily concerned with the educational welfare of the pupils rather than their own self-interest.

4. Be conscious that the evaluator's (principal) personality as well as that of the evaluatee (teacher)--good or bad--will have an influence upon achievable results in the conference.

5. Strive for unity in leadership effort and action among all administrators in the building.

6. Be willing to let the teacher express his feelings in the conference without risk of censure or reprisal even if they may be markedly different from those of the evaluator.

7. Provide for privacy.

8. Safeguard the confidential nature of any matter requiring it.

9. Avoid asking for opinions on the spot; allow time for consideration.

10. Strive for a climate of mutual respect.

11. Be prepared to take as well as to give.

12. Be honestly committed to the concept that teacher, principal, and supervisor are members of a team working for the best interests of a good educational program.

13. Take the initiative in encouraging the teacher to make constructive criticisms.

14. Provide the opportunity for the discussion of school problems.

15. Invite suggestions; when made, try to do something about them.

16. Don't give the teacher the brush-off when problems are presented.

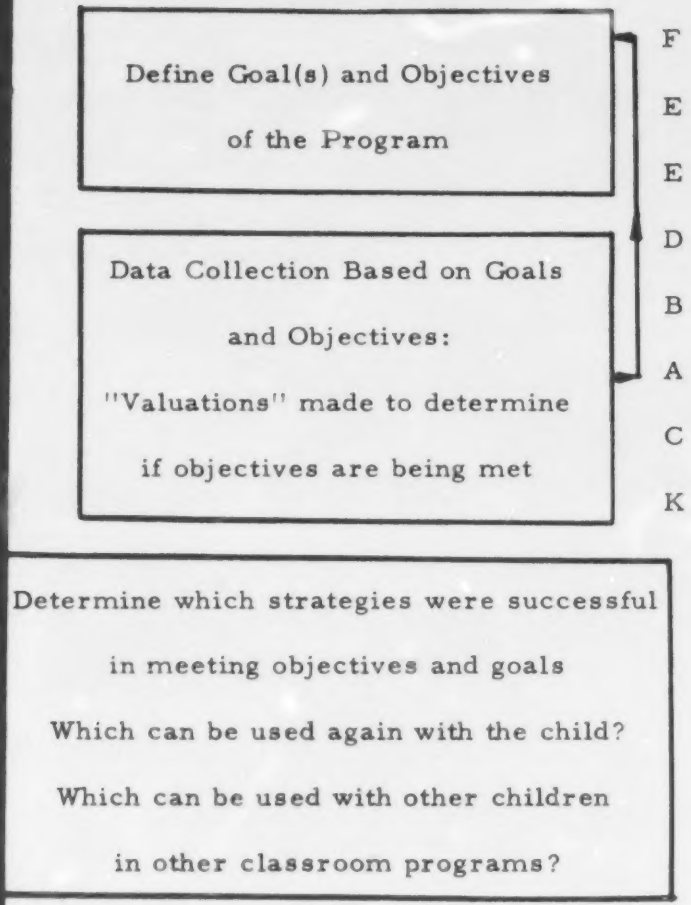
17. Try to be aware of what the teacher is doing in his classes; be conversant with general developments in his field of specialization. Leave the technical aspects to the supervisor.

18. Don't talk too much; don't let the teacher talk too little. (Redfern, 1963, pp. 45-46).

A Simplistic Program Evaluation Process

The evaluation process presented in Figure 4 and discussed herein (Algozzine, Alper, and Sabatino, 1975) can be viewed as a simplistic means of understanding what is happening in a given program. It contains three major stages: the pre-situational, the situational, and the post-situational. During the first stage (pre-situational), the goals and objectives of the program are defined.

During the situational stage, data are collected which allow judgments (evaluations) to be made (for example, statements about particular behavioral objectives which demonstrate attainment of the desired goals). This step is essential if the evaluation is to provide any information regarding objectives, goals, and their attainment.



I. PRE-SITUATIONAL

Definition of Goals and Objectives

II. SITUATIONAL

Data Collection and Description

III. POST-SITUATIONAL

Generalizations

FIGURE 4

(Algozzine, Alper, and Sabatino, 1975)

Such information may be collected by questionnaires, interviews, observations, etc. The information collected during this stage must be descriptively prepared so that its meaning and utility will be apparent. This involves representing graphically, or otherwise, the results of the "valuations" and define the next step of the model. If the goals are not being met, the teacher can relate this information back to the first stage and either new objectives can be formulated or new goals can be agreed upon. If, however, the goals are being met, the teacher then proceeds to the post-situational stage.

The post-situational stage involves determining which parts of the program are effective for obtaining the objectives and goals. The major function of this stage is to establish the relationship between the program goals and the successful achievement of objectives which lead to these goals.

To summarize, the pre-situational stage involves defining the goals and objectives of the program to be evaluated. In the situational stage, information is collected, described, and related to the desired objectives and goals. In the post-situational stage, the obtained information is compared to that which is intended.

A Practical Evaluation Design

The following example illustrates how the proposed evaluation design might be implemented by a teacher to evaluate a unit on word recognition skills for a delinquent youth. While we are not recommending that a phonics approach be used to teach word recognition skills in all situations, we merely use it here as an illustrative example. The steps within each stage are not all-inclusive but represent some possible choices in a sequenced flow of instructional activities.

I. Pre-Situational Stage

The purpose of this stage is to clearly state the goals and objectives.

----Gather assessment information of the child from other personnel (for example, check school records, test results, other teachers' reports, etc., to gather any information which might pertain to the overall goal).

----Administer teacher-made informal tests to determine child's level of functioning (response to previous instruction). (For example, the child can recognize letter combinations, but does not recognize words.)

----Specify behaviors in need of remediation (recognizing initial consonant blends, for example).

----Specify instructional strategies (methods and materials) to be used in achieving the behavioral objectives (task analysis, behavior modification principles to be used, types of remedial materials to be used).

----Develop a hierarchy of sequential behavioral objectives based on the above information regarding the child's strengths and weaknesses. (For example, the child will recognize that th, sh, and ch represent different sounds and will then be able to identify these sounds orally from a series of words (i.e., shoe, choose, thick, etc.). At this point the teacher will have defined her goal(s) within an instructional area and specified a sequence of behavioral objectives which should lead the child toward the mastery of the major aims of her instructional program.

II. Situational Stage

The purpose of this stage is to collect and describe data based on the goals and objectives defined in Stage 1.

----Administer teacher-made, criterion-referenced tests to determine if the child has mastered the behavioral objectives being taught currently. For example, the teacher presents a list of words. The child has to orally identify all the sh words with 80% accuracy.

----Gather information from the child, his parents, other teachers, etc. This could be attitudinal information on study habits at home, etc.

----If necessary, consult with others, e.g., resource teacher, supervisor, school psychologist. Self-determination of the classroom climate (child-teacher-curriculum interaction) may be helpful at this point.

----Feedback this information to the original objectives in order to determine the student's performance in interacting with the curriculum according to the standards specified.

III. Post-Situational Stage

The purpose of this stage is to make comparisons, predictions, and generalizations based on the data obtained in the situational stage as it relates to achieving the desired goals.

----Administer criterion-referenced tests to determine where the child is functioning now in relation to the hierarchy of behavioral objectives. How do his strengths and weaknesses change as remediation is applied ? and what new goals and behavioral objectives seem appropriate ? (For example, the child can now discriminate between sh and ch sounds within words but cannot generalize this skill to reading orally words that contain the sh and ch blends.)

----Determine which instructional strategies were successful with the child and which were not. Which ones, totally or in part, can be used again with him as he initiates work on new goals and objectives? (For example, the child likes to work in small groups or with one other child and has more success here than when he is left to work by himself.)

----Which techniques might be successful for use with other children in the class (the teacher decides that task analysis, for example, can be used in many other instructional areas).

The answers to these questions provide the classroom teacher with evaluative information about her program. They tell her which aspects of her teaching plan were effective, and they allow her to keep records of the child's progress.

Figure 5 is an example of an evaluation worksheet which may be used by the teacher in order to carry out the instructional objectives proposed.

FIGURE 5

Evaluation Worksheet

I. Pre-Situational Information

-- What do you want the child to learn? (goal or objective)

_____

-- What does the child do now with regard to what he is to learn?

_____

-- What should you do to teach or enable his learning the stated goal or objective?

_____

II. Situation Information

-- What is the effect of teaching on the stated goal or objective (as determined by the child's performance)?

_____

-- Are modifications necessary at this point?

____ Yes. Is the strategy appropriate? ___ Is your assessment of the child's skills appropriate? ___ Are your goals and objectives appropriate? ___

____ No. Go to the next stage.

III. Post-Situational Information

-- What was the reason for the success?

_____

-- Which strategies were most successful with the child?

_____

-- Can this be generalized? _____

-- Which strategies can be used again with the same child or with other children to teach other skills?

_____

(Algozzine, Alper, and Sabatino, 1975)

The Institutional Administrator

Pulliam (1965) has described the institutional administrator, his role, and his function in exacting terms. He writes:

> "The chief administrative officer or superintendent should be a person with a successful experience in work with children. Preferably, he should have a Master's degree in one of the social sciences and some experience in a supervisory-administrative capacity in a training school. This does not eliminate the person with more experience or unusual interest, who has less formal education. It does eliminate, however, the political appointee who is appointed superintendent for supporting the right man or party. The less-educated administrator will generally need a stronger department and division staff of well-educated and well-trained persons and will also need to be more willing to delegate responsibility in specialized areas.
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> More superintendents are becoming 'front men' for their institutions, devoting more time to dealing with matters from outside the institution, such as the parent agency, legislature, community leaders, newspapers, radio, television, and general public relations. When the superintendent takes the outside pressures off the clinical and business staff, these specialized employees are able to devote their full time and effort to matters more directly related to the children and the internal programs and problems of the institution. The superintendent actively participates in policy making decisions and chairs selected committees, leaving routine decisions and day-to-day operations to department heads and division chiefs."
>
> (Pulliam, 1965, p. 15)

This chapter has spent a great number of words attempting to describe the role and function of an administrator, working with institutional programs for chronically disruptive youth. The nature of the chapter was a "state of the art" review. In this chapter,

historical facts and facets were discussed, as were the topics of decision making, planned change, type of organizational models, systems analysis, evaluations processes, and the features of program accountability. It is obvious that a main ingredient is missing. Namely, information about the administrator--the person--that man or woman who assumes the responsibility for administering an institution.

Campbell, Corbally, Ramseyer (1966) in discussing the factors affecting administrative behavior have said ". . . behavior is dependent upon the interaction of the conditions within the person and those which surround him." In essence, the man cannot be understood without understanding the job situation, and the job situation will reflect the dimensions which characterize the man.

Sweitzer (1958) has described five general responsibility patterns. These are:

1. Authority-Centered.
   The authority-centered administrator sees his primary responsibility as achieving purposes through clarifying and carrying out the official policy adopted by the school board.

2. Inner-Directed.
   The inner-directed administrator conceives his primary responsibility to be modifying, improving, and interpreting policy and proceeding along lines he thinks will best meet the educational needs of the community.

3. Work-Group-Oriented.
   The work-group-oriented administrator considers his primary responsibility to be facilitating the cooperative development of group standards and procedures that tend to meet identified local needs.

4. Individual-Centered.

The individual-centered administrator conceives his primary responsibility to be enabling individuals and groups to carry out their tasks, largely self-appointed and self-defined, with as little interference as possible.

5. Other-Directed.

The other-directed administrator conceives his primary responsibility to be knowing as best he can the wishes of the people served, and seeing to it that the goals and procedures felt to be most worthwhile are officially adopted and then achieved.

(Sweitzer, 1958, p. 298)

Pallone, Rickard, and Hurley (1970) have reviewed job satisfaction studies up until 1967. They found a great deal of support for the two-factor theory developed by Herzberg, Mausner, and Synderman (1959). The difference in most traditional theories on job satisfaction and the two-factor theory is that job satisfaction has historically been considered as a linear continuum with the poles being satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Herzberg, et al., (1959) have posited that job satisfaction cannot be dealt with as degrees of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. There is, after all, a degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction for any job. There are satisfiers, e.g., achievement, recognition, etc., and dissatisfiers. Satisfiers are intrinsic to the job content, and dissatisfiers are extrinsic. Pallone, Rickard, and Hurley (1970) summarize their findings in three pointed statements.

1. There is insufficient evidence to support the two-factor theory that job satisfaction is generated by one set of variables, and dissatisfaction by another.

2. The relationship between job satisfaction and psychological and social needs is poorly understood. Some individuals satisfy many personal and social needs through work; others do not.

3. They do not support the widely held operational belief that job dissatisfaction leads to job or career change.

These findings make considerable sense in light of Henrichs (1968) review. He believes that all "job satisfaction" research has been confronted by one serious problem. The problem is finding a suitable definition of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is such a broad, global term, that it must not be restricted to a specific task. He writes:

> ". . . job satisfaction as a general construct roughly analogous to the often used but essentially undefined concept of 'morale.' Although the difficulties with the concept of morale were well outlined by Guion (1958), and as many as eight or nine different definitions were presented, the flavor of some complex of job attitudes reflecting overall favorable or unfavorable 'morale' finds its way into much current-day research."
> (Henrichs, 1968, p. 479)

Vroom (1964) concludes:

a) There is a consistent negative relationship between overall satisfaction and turnover, though the correlation in the studies he cites are small.

b) There is an indication that absences and overall satisfaction are negatively correlated, though only to a moderate degree.

c) There is no simple relationship between overall job satisfaction and job performance.

Despite extensive use of the concept of overall job satisfaction, it would seem that the construct has provided only a minimum degree of

precision in understanding the basis for various organization behaviors. (p. 185).

Vroom (1964) cites a list of factorial studies which have identified such [variables] as attitudes toward the company in general, promotional opportunities, specific job content, supervision, compensation, working conditions, and co-workers. Probably the most carefully conceived factorial research in job attitudes (Kendall, et al., 1963), utilizing the Job Description Index scale, generated five distinct factors. They were: promotional opportunities, job content, supervision, compensation, and co-workers. Sedlacek (1966) concludes from his extensive research that four factors--intrinsic, supervisor, social service, and financial advancement--empirically account for most of the common variance in job attitudes.

A general concept of morale is frequently [demonstrated] by factorial studies, and it is not uncommon to obtain a general factor of overall [job] satisfaction characterized by significant factorial loadings for most variables in any job satisfaction data matrix. Dabas (1958) claims that a general factor exists in most morale surveys, reminding one of the classical discussions about the existence, or lack of existence, of a g-factor in mental ability.

Similarly, global measures of morale or job satisfaction have up until now not been useful research tools. These factors do play a role as broad indices. There is an evident need for research focusing on the components of job attitudes rather than attempting to

utilize a global concept of general job satisfaction in trying to understand the dynamics of organizational behavior.

An analogy within the area of intellectual ability would seem to be appropriate for research dealing with industrial job satisfaction. While early efforts focused on the identification and measurement of general intelligence, more recent studies have concentrated on the identification of specific ability factors which must be understood in developing a comprehensive psychology of individual differences. Global measures of mental ability have not been as useful as differential measures in the understanding of human behavior.

Gruenfeld and Weissenberg (1970) have hypothesized that analytical and global perceivers would differ significantly among intrinsic and extrinsic sources of job satisfaction. The results showed that for global perceivers, in intrinsic and extrinsic satisfactions correlated substantially with each other, and with overall job satisfaction, while for analytical perceivers intrinsic and extrinsic satisfactions were independent and, as expected, only intrinsic satisfaction correlated with overall job satisfaction.

This study concludes that a consideration of individual differences may clarify some of the confusion surrounding the study of job satisfaction, particularly as defined by the two-factor theory of Herzberg, Mausner, and Synderman (1959). By examining two groups which differed in cognitive style, he demonstrated that these differences affected perceptions of potential rewards of the organization.

This study also demonstrated why it was possible that some studies attempting to test the two-factor theory report that extrinsic rewards were related to overall satisfaction, and some intrinsic rewards were related to dissatisfaction, depending upon the subjects sample being assessed.

McCormick, Jeanneret, and Mecham (1972) have found that "job analysis resulted in the identification of reasonably meaningful job dimensions of human behaviors (and), . . . based on similar behaviors should have implications in terms of common aptitude requirements and corresponding rates of pay." (p. 346). The results indicate that aptitude requirements and rates of pay can be predicted reasonably well from such quantified job-analysis data, thus suggesting that conventional test-validation and job-evaluation procedures might sometimes be eliminated.

The authors conclude that:

1. The results lend further support to the thesis that it is possible to analyze human work in terms of meaningful "units" or job elements of a worker-oriented nature, and that this analysis can be carried out with acceptable reliability.

2. Further, there is evidence that such job elements tend to form reasonably stable job dimensions that characterize the "structure" of human work.

3. In addition, ratings of the "requirements" of such job elements in terms of various human attributes can be made by psychologists with substantial reliability, when pooling the ratings of several raters.

4. The resulting attribute "profiles" of job elements (expressed as medians of the several ratings of individual attributes) also tend to form reasonably stable job dimensions.
(McCormick, Jeanneret, and Mecham, 1972, p. 347)

Herzberg's (1959) two-factor job satisfaction theory was the first significant step toward a multidimensional description of job attitudes at the professional level. Herzberg concluded from his study of engineers and accountants that only intrinsic work elements called "satisfiers" (recognition, achievement, accomplishment, responsibility, and advancement) could generate job satisfaction. Conversely, extrinsic elements, or "dissatisfiers" (supervision, wages, interpersonal relations, company policy, working conditions) gave rise to job dissatisfaction. The roles of satisfier and dissatisfier were seen as independent--a satisfier could not evoke dissatisfaction nor could a dissatisfier give rise to job satisfaction.

However, further research testing the two-factor theory has convincingly shown that the intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy does not adequately reflect the sources of positive and negative job attitudes. Both "satisfiers" and "dissatisfiers" appear to be aspects of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Wood and LeBold (1970) have found that using factor analysis (a 34-item questionnaire with 3,000 engineers) that job satisfaction is multidimensional.

"A general job characteristic factor and a specific factor, Professional Challenge, tend to be related to job satisfaction. Five

other factors were identified: Status, Autonomy, Professional Recognition, Interpersonal Relations, and Supervisory Relations."

The integration of the goals of an individual with the goals of his organization has been discussed in the literature. Numerous studies have described the conflict between individuals, especially professionals, and their organizations. (McKelvey, 1969). Most of these studies have viewed the conflict between professionals and organization as generally inevitable, and the focus has been on the professional's responses to the conflict rather than upon organizational conditions which might reduce the strains. In various fields, the socializing processes of educational institutions have been shown to increase the individual's identification with his profession.

Less is known about the development of organizational identification than is known about professional identification. Certain organizational conditions, such as reward structures and job design, appear to be linked to the member's organizational commitment. However, there has been little research on personal factors that might be related to identification, such as self-identity, personal values, and need satisfaction.

Iris and Barrett (1972) have studied the relations of job satisfaction, job importance, and life satisfaction measures in two samples of foremen differing in their level of job satisfaction. The results supported a "spillover" interpretation of the relationship between job and life satisfaction. The relationship between

satisfaction and pay was moderated by the favorability of the job situation. Those people who were in a work environment that provided little job satisfaction were more likely to be dissatisfied with other aspects of their life if they felt aspects of the job such as promotions, supervision, and work to be important for their job satisfaction. It would appear that when people are in a job situation that provides little job satisfaction, disavowing the importance of the job may be a healthy response.

Those who had given up any thoughts of advancing beyond the assembly line appeared to have better mental health than those who were still hoping for something better in life. In the same manner, the foremen in this investigation who were in an unsatisfactory job situation but de-emphasized the importance of the various aspects of the job tended to be satisfied with life and the job in general.

This finding supports some of Herzberg's (1959) work on the nature of pay and its dual role as a motivating factor. In an unfavorable job situation, satisfaction with pay comes to be a main determinant of overall job satisfaction. In a more favorable job environment, satisfaction with pay is not related to general job satisfaction, whereas the factors of promotion, co-worker, supervision, and work are related.

Research on the personnel selection of administrators has been of two main types. First, it analyzes senior executives in terms of their ability, personality, interpersonal relations,

adjustment, values, etc. The result of this type of research has been to establish the fact that there are all kinds of executives; highly intellectual and not so intellectual, personalities varying from dominant to permissive, from outgoing to shy, from warm to aloof, from well-adjusted to those displaying obsessive and neurotic traits, from those who are materialistic to those having humanistic values.

Secondly, research on personnel selection has attempted to analyze job demands against characteristics of the administrator, identifying some of the relevant dimensions of a job, and then finding ways to measure those dimensions. This approach has also failed to yield significant results, primarily because techniques for examining an executive's job have not been fruitful.

Cartwright and Zander (1968) suggest that the burdens and responsibilities of power may produce compassionate, rather than exploitive, behavior on the part of the administrator. There is the possibility that the administrative responsibility may produce other beneficial changes related to the administrator's view of the world. Administrative responsibility provides that individual with broadened and deepened understanding of himself and others. It is interesting to watch a person work through the ranks until he achieves an administrative position, at which time he changes his general perspective.

Rogow and Lasswell (1963) adopted a more neutral stand and maintained that the control of administrative responsibility neither leads to corruption nor to ennoblement. Rather, the connection

between power and corruption depends upon various combinations of individual ego needs and the type of social organization of which the individual is a member.

There are other social scientists who flatly believe that the very control of power induces individuals to act in an inequitable and exploitive manner toward the less powerful. (Sorokin and Lundin, 1959). The well-known observation of Lord Acton that "power tends to corrupt and absolute power corrupts absolutely" clearly reflects this point of view.

Kipnis (1972) studied the relationship between administrative control, self-esteem, and esteem for others in a simulated organization setting. Administrative responsibility caused subjects to (a) increase their attempts to influence the behavior of the less powerful, (b) devalue the worth of the performance of the less powerful, (c) attribute the cause of the less powerful's efforts to power controlled by themselves, rather than to the less powerful's motivations to do well, (d) view the less powerful as objects of manipulation, and (e) express a preference for the maintenance of psychological distance from the less powerful. No support was found for the prediction that the administrative responsibility elevated self-esteem.

It is suggested that administrative control triggers a train of events, which, in theory at least, goes like this: (a) With the control of power goes increased temptations to influence other's behavior;

(b) As actual influence attempts increase, there arises the belief that the behavior of others is not self-controlled, but is caused by the power holder; (c) Hence, a devaluation of their performance occurs. In addition, with increased influence attempts, forces are generated within the more powerful to (d) increase psychological distance from the less powerful and view them as objects of manipulation.

The findings on the relationship between control of resources and frequency of influence also suggest a link between two alternate views of administrative responsibility. The first view describes power in terms of the control of resources, which provide the power holder with the potential to influence others. The second view of power places greater emphasis on the exercise of power--as a process of forcing or persuading others to carry out some behavior they would otherwise not do. Those who view the exercise of power as a manifestation of personality also stress the manipulative aspects of interpersonal relations. For example, McClelland (1969) defines need for power as "concern about having influence over others." (p. 143). Yet clearly there is a difference between power defined as a dimension of social interaction, where the emphasis is on dominance and the manipulation of others, and power defined as the control of resources.

Corruption can also refer to the way in which the control of power changes the power holder's self-perceptions and his

perceptions of others. Interestingly enough, power holders frequently believe themselves exempt from common morality. This view has come down through history in several forms. Machiavelli, for instance, argued that it is necessary for a prince to learn how not to be good. A recent study of business executives (Sorokin and Lundin, 1959) similarly found them leading a double life with reference to morality--having one set of moral values for the office and a second for the home. Sorokin believes that the very possession of vast power tends to demoralize the power holder.

These changes in self-regard appear to occur for several reasons that are of concern to psychologists. First, the power holder finds that he is able to influence others because of the power he controls. Such compliance may lead the power holder to believe that his ideas and views are superior to other persons. Second, the power holder tends to be the recipient of flattery and well wishes from the less powerful. This flattery may also contribute to the idea that he is something special. Finally, it may be that the control of resources demands that the individual adopt a morality consistent with the kinds of power he controls. For instance, Galbraith (1967) has said that managers in large corporations are practically forced to make decisions which minimize risks to corporate investments, despite the fact that these decisions violate laws and the general welfare of the public. Thus, the morality that develops is designed to

protect and extend corporate power and resources. Frequently, administrative power forces the administrator to ignore conventional morality.

Schwyhart and Smith (1972) investigated the nature of job involvement and its relationship to other variables with 149 male middle managers in one company. A replication group contained 58 S's. Both company satisfaction and job involvement were measured using 20-item Likert scales. A significant linear relationship between the two was found in both groups. Because only the first factor--job ambition--was consistent with previous research, it was concluded that the factor structure of job involvement is occupationally specific. The results were interpreted as supporting the idea that importance of the job to a worker's self-image is associated with his satisfaction with the company.

Knowing how important a job is to a worker's self-image does not tell us why the job is important to him or what job behaviors or job involvement may be related. Theories of work motivation are relevant to these questions. According to Vroom (1964), the self-image is reinforced, and the correlation between job performance and job satisfaction is increased when job performance is matched to the ability the worker values and possesses. Performance of workers has repeatedly been higher for those who were ego involved in their jobs than for those who were not. The correlation between job satisfaction

and perceived opportunity for self-expression was highest among workers who were highly involved in their jobs.

The job involvement concept has been shown to be positively related to the perceived importance of, and desired amount of, and existence of, opportunities for the attainment of esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization goals of middle managers. (Maurer, 1967). If the attainment of such goals is prerequisite to becoming involved, then turnover should be higher among less involved workers. It has been found that job satisfaction increases with the opportunities for recognition and autonomy, and persons achieving in the eyes of their companies are less likely to quit. (Ross and Zander, 1957).

Gemmill and Heisler (1972) found a relationship between an individual's control over his environment, job satisfaction, and performance. More specifically, the study indicates that the greater the belief in one's ability to influence the environment, the lower is the reported job strain and the higher is the reported job satisfaction and positional mobility.

Managers who believe in their ability to control their environment, when confronted by job strain-evoking situations, are more likely to initiate attempts at improving the situation. To the extent that such attempts are successful, job strain is reduced and their belief reinforced. A history of success in overcoming job strain-evoking situations could also lead them to feel less bothered when confronted by a new job strain-evoking situation. The relationship

between the environmental control orientations of managers and positional mobility may be explained by the fact that managers who view control as external may be more likely to perceive promotion as a chance occurrence, thus being less inclined to focus upon the acquisition of necessary skills and techniques. It might be expected that managers who occupy higher organizational positions and who are more upwardly mobile (experience greater total positional mobility) would be more internally-oriented.

The concepts of organizational climate serve as a useful framework for tying together some of the diverse individual and organizational approaches to behavior in organizations. One purpose of research on reward policies is to demonstrate how differently reward policies may effect effort. Not only can the inter-organizational differences be examined as a function of reward system, but also the differences in the way individuals relate to the organization.

Extrinsic rewards may be viewed as causes of effort which are moderated by the effort-reward policies and procedures of organizations. Effort is a function of both individual variables (the degree to which rewards are valued) and organizational climate or reward variables (the degree to which effort is rewarded with valued rewards), in interaction.

It follows that measures of individuals may be valid predictors of behavior in some organizational settings but not in others.

In terms of the path-goal (effort-reward) model, it is hypothesized that personal intrinsic values will be positively related to effort, and effort will be greater where the individual is rewarded for effort with extrinsic rewards he values. Not only would effort be highest in organizations where it was rewarded with pay, but those people most highly valuing pay in that organization would be the ones working the hardest. There is, however, no relationship between the value of pay and effort. For those who most highly value intrinsic rewards or feelings, satisfaction with pay for high effort allows for self-reinforcement. Thus, it was found that those working the hardest not only most highly value various intrinsic rewards, they are also most satisfied with their pay.

Hodgkinson (1970) reported on work which attempted to correlate values assumed to be essential to the administrative process, and social perceptions in the organization. He used Halpin's Organization Climate Description Questionnaire and value scales developed by Scott. He sampled 40 public schools with a total sample size of 8,707 teachers and administrators. He advanced five major hypotheses:

1. The hierarchical levels of an organization are reflected in differences of values and value orientations for the role incumbents. That is, values vary with status.

2. Staff value orientations are significantly correlated with social interaction perceptions.

3. Staff and leader values and value orientations are related to the concept of authenticity as expounded by A. W. Halpin (1966, pp. 203-204). Halpin was of the opinion that the two dimensions of Thrust and Esprit, as measured on his OCDQ instrument, represented the best indices of authenticity. He was, however, vague as to the precise nature of the term.

4. Inner-direction and other-direction (in the sense explicated) are directly or inversely related to the "openness" of organizational climate.

5. A biographical hypothesis: Age, sex, and length of service in the organization are predictive of value orientation.

His findings suggest that values and social perceptions are related. There is evidence to support the hypothesis that values change with progression in the organizational hierarchy. Promoted teachers have value orientations which are different from their colleagues at the time of promotion; promoted teachers have value orientations which become different from their colleagues as a result of promotion, and as suggested above; promoted teachers have a flexibility of value orientation, which is an explanatory factor in observed changes at different hierarchical levels in the organizational structure.

The value of kindness discriminates between the role of teachers and administrators and between younger and older teachers, young female teachers being the most concerned about this value. The older and more experienced the teacher, the more important will the value of loyalty tend to be. Some evidence indicated that newly appointed administrators stressed this value, but that it

declined in importance with length of service. The value of academic achievement did not appear to be especially high to one group. Religiousness and physical development appeared to be of greater significance to the organization. The values of creativity and independence discriminate between organizational roles with administrators and older teachers.

To summarize, it would appear that personal factors such as intelligence, so-called organizational abilities, are not important to the administrative function if a reasonable amount of such skill is present. The influences from the administrator as a person, and the influences on the administrator from the job, as they become integrative forces, are the essential ingredients. Social values do change as one climbs the organizational hierarchy and especially as they are confronted with organizational pressures. It is not true that administrators use their power ruthlessly, or in fact, that power corrupts! The opposite is more likely to occur. As they feel a responsibility for people, administrators become more humanistic. The age-old struggle between humanistic and organizational values is not even an operable concept in 1975, especially for an administrator faced with procuring behavioral change as the major product of his organization. Modern institutions don't need mechanisms to fix personnel and budgetary problems. They need active programmatic leadership, another pair of dirty hands, understanding, and working for those who work in a program.

Institutional administrators are decision makers above all else. Former President Truman's "buck stops here" adage is most appropriate. Leadership has many different qualities. The three major ones are simply to be a good listener, weigh the matter, and decide a course of action. The modern institutional administrator is a working member of an organization; he must be a part of that organizational structure, representing all of its subparts, seeing them as organized wholes.

The practicing institutional administrator must not only solve the problem, but must also assist in phrasing the question relating the problem to be solved. The reactor-to-crisis role must be laid to rest; the dimension of active planning must be surfaced.

Ramos (1972) has a paragraph in "Models of Man and Administrative Theory" which is worthy of more than one reading. He writes:

> Administrative theory can no longer legitimize the functional rationality of the organization as it largely has done. The basic problem of an earlier time was to overcome the scarcity of material goods and elementary services. In that period a great amount of toil in work settings was technically and socially necessary and even inevitable, which is not true at present. What brings about the crisis in today's organizations is the fact that by design and operation, they still assume that old scarcities continue to be basic, while in fact contemporary man is aware of critical scarcities belonging to another order, i.e., related to needs beyond the level of simple survival. (19) Thus, the Social Darwinism that has traditionally validated management theory and practice has become outdated by the force of circumstances.
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> (Ramos, 1972, p. 245)

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